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# CORPVS INSCRIPTIONVM INDICARVM

VOL. II, PART I

KHAROSHŢHĪ INSCRIPTIONS

# CORPVS INSCRIPTIONVM INDICARVM VOL. II, PART I

# KHAROSHŢHĪ INSCRIPTIONS

WITH THE EXCEPTION OF THOSE OF AŚOKA

EDITED BY

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WITH ONE MAP AND 36 PLATES

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# IN MEMORIAM CHRISTIANI LASSENII NORVAGI QVI ANTE CENTVM ANNOS COMMENTATIONEM GEOGRAPHICAM ATQVE HISTORICAM DE PENTAPOTAMIA INDICA

SCRIPSIT

### PREFACE

ORE than ten years ago arrangements were concluded for the preparation of a volume of Kharoshthī and Brāhmī inscriptions, to be edited jointly by Professors Luders and Rapson and to be issued as vol. ii of the *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*.

In 1922 Professor Rapson intimated that his other engagements precluded him from undertaking the work, and, at the suggestion of the Government of India, the Secretary of State for India in Council decided to offer the vacant post to me, and this was done in a letter of the 17th November 1922.

Having already devoted much time to the study of Kharoshṭhī and Kharoshṭhī inscriptions I gladly accepted the offer, though I much regretted that Professor Rapson, with his unrivalled knowledge of Kharoshṭhī, had not been able to undertake the task.

During the six years which have passed since then I have given most of my time to the work.

Through the courtesy of the Indian Government I was able to visit the chief Indian Museums and examine the originals of most Kharoshṭhī inscriptions in the first months of 1925, and through the kind services of Sir John Marshall I have been provided with estampages and photographs of all the inscriptions preserved in India. The authorities of the British Museum and the Royal Asiatic Society have sent me photographs of the inscriptions in their possession, and the India Office has been good enough to prepare for my use an excellent plaster-of-Paris cast of the Mathurā Lion Capital. Finally, the French authorities have, at the request of the Foreign Office, graciously placed at my disposal reproductions of the Kharoshṭhī records preserved in the French capital. For all the assistance given me in this way I beg to offer my sincere thanks.

My friends Professors Karlgren, Luders, and Thomas have laid me under heavy obligation in connexion with my work. Professor Karlgren has gone through the proofs of the introduction and saved me from several mistakes. Professor Thomas has kindly read the proofs of the whole volume, and both he and Professor Luders have on several occasions discussed many difficult points with me and helped me in many ways. I have tried to acknowledge the assistance I have received in

vi PREFACE

this way, but I am afraid that I have done so unsatisfactorily, and in this place I should like to give expression to the cordial gratitude which I feel towards them.

Finally, I wish to add that it is largely due to the Oxford University Press if the outer appearance of the book will be found satisfactory. To people who have often had to fight some printing-office in order to produce fairly acceptable work it is a rare experience to co-operate with the Clarendon Press and to feel that there is no fight, but only a competition in order to make the results as excellent as it is possible at the present day.

STEN KONOW.

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### **ABBREVIATIONS**

ASI = Archaeological Survey of India. Cunningham's Reports.

ASIAR = Archaeological Survey of India. Annual Report.

ASIFC = Archaeological Survey of India. Frontier Circle.

ASIUPP = Archaeological Survey of India. United Provinces and Panjab Circle.

ASWI = Archaeological Survey of Western India.

BEFEO = Bulletin de l'École Française d'Extrême-Orient.

Ep. Ind. = Epigraphia Indica.

Festgabe Jacobi = Beiträge zur Literaturwissenschaft und Geistesgeschichte Indiens. Festgabe Hermann Jacobi zum 75. Geburtstag dargebracht. Bonn, 1926.

Festschrift für Ernst Windisch = Festschrift Ernst Windisch zum siebzigsten Geburtstag dargebracht. Leipzig, 1914.

Franke, Beiträge = Beiträge aus chinesischen Quellen zur Kenntnis der Türkvölker und Skythen Centralasiens. Von O. Franke. Berlin, 1904. Aus dem Anhang zu den Abhandlungen der Königl. Preussischen Akademie der Wissenschaften vom Jahre 1904.

Gardner = The Coins of the Greek and Scythic Kings of Bactria and India in the British Museum.

By Percy Gardner. London, 1886.

Ind. Ant. = Indian Antiquary.

JA = Journal Asiatique.

JAOS = Journal of the American Oriental Society.

JASB = Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

JBoBrRAS = Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society.

JBORS = Journal of the Bihar and Orissa Research Society.

J&PASB = Journal and Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

JRAS = Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society.

Karlgren = Analytic Dictionary of Chinese and Sino-Japanese. By Bernhard Karlgren. Paris, 1923. Khar. Inscr. = Kharosthī Inscriptions discovered by Sir Aurel Stein in Chinese Turkestan. Transcribed and edited by A. M. Boyer, E. J. Rapson, and E. Senart. Parts I and II. Oxford, 1920-27.

Lüders, List = A List of Brahmi Inscriptions from the earliest times to about A.D. 400 with the exception of those of Asoka. By H. Lüders. Appendix to Epigraphia Indica. Vol. X. Calcutta, 1912.

Majumdar, List = A List of Kharosthī Inscriptions. By N. G. Majumdar. J&PASB xx, 1924, pp. 1 ff.

Marquart, Erānšahr = Erānšahr nach der Geographie des Ps. Moses Xorenaći. Von J. Marquart. Abhandlungen der Kgl. Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Göttingen. Phil.-hist. Klasse. Neue Folge III, Nro. 2. Berlin, 1901.

MASI = Memoirs of the Archaeological Survey of India.

Rapson, WK = Catalogue of the Coins of the Andhra Dynasty, the Western Kṣatrapas, the Traikūṭaka Dynasty, and the 'Bodhi' Dynasty. By Edward James Rapson. London, 1908.

SBAW = Sitzungsberichte der Preussischen Akademie der Wissenschaften. Berlin.

Smith, Cat. = Catalogue of the Coins in the Indian Museum of Calcutta, including the Cabinet of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. Vol. I. By Vincent A. Smith. Oxford, 1906.

SWAW = Sitzungsberichte der Kais. Akademie der Wissenschaften in Wien.

Whitehead = Catalogue of Coins in the Panjab Museum, Lahore. Vol. I. By R. B. Whitehead. Oxford, 1914.

WZKM = Wiener Zeitschrift für die Kunde des Morgenlandes.

ZDMG = Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft.

### HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

Kharoshthi cannot, like Brāhmī, be characterized as the national alphabet of India. It has, it is true, been developed on Indian soil and for noting down the sounds of an Indian language, but its use was restricted to a comparatively limited territory, and even there we have occasional indications of Brāhmī having been employed, e.g. in ancient seal legends from Taxila.

Bühler has shown that the Kharoshṭhī characters are derived from Aramaic, which Origin of was in common use for official purposes all over the Achaemenian empire during the Kharoshṭhī. period when it comprised north-western India. Some features, such as the vowel system and the compound consonants, point to the conclusion that the alphabet was elaborated with the help of Brāhmī, which must accordingly have been in existence for some time previously.

From the purely Indian point of view there was not, therefore, any necessity for framing a new script. And Bühler is evidently right in assuming that Kharoshthī is 'the result of the intercourse between the offices of the Satraps and of the native authorities, the Indian chiefs and the heads of towns and villages, whom, as the accounts of the state of the Panjāb at the time of Alexander's invasion show, the Persians left in possession in consideration of the payment of their tribute. The Hindus probably used at first the pure Aramaic characters, just as in much later times they adopted the Arabic writing for a number of their dialects, and they introduced in the course of time the modifications observable in the Kharoshthī alphabet'.

This development may have taken some time. It was an accomplished fact in the Period of middle of the third century B.C., when the alphabet was used in the Mānsehrā and Kharoshṭhī. Shāhbāzgaṛhī versions of Aśoka's edicts, though Aramaic was then still in use, as shown by the Aramaic inscription found at Taxila, in which Professor Andreas has recognized Aśoka's usual designation Priyadarśin. The alphabet then remained in use for more than half a millennium, the last known Kharoshṭhī inscriptions dating from the fourth or fifth century A.D.

Bühler has pointed out that Kharoshthī is evidently a clerk's and not a Pandit's Kharoshthī alphabet. Outside of India we find it used also in books, in the Dutreuil de Rhins a clerk's alphabet. manuscript containing a version of the Dhammapada in a north-western Prākrit, which has been found near Khotan.<sup>2</sup> It is possible that the same may sometimes have been the case in India,<sup>3</sup> and it is even possible that the Dutreuil de Rhins manuscript was written in India. The only old manuscript actually found in India within the territory and the period covered by Kharoshthī inscriptions is, however, written in Brāhmī.

The area within which we can prove Kharoshṭhī to have been regularly used Kharoshṭhī belongs to the north-west. The easternmost limit is, in the Panjāb, at Māṇikiāla. area. There are two inscriptions from Kāngrā, where Kharoshṭhī is used in addition to Brāhmī, and there is another record from Karnāl, which shows that the alphabet was known further to the east, and foreign conquerors from the north-west used it in a well-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Bühler, 'On the origin of the Indian Brāhma alphabet', 2nd edition of *Indian Studies*, no. iii, Strassburg, 1898, pp. 48 ff., 92 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Ed. Senart, JA, IX, xii, 1898, pp. 193 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Cf. Bühler, Indische Palaeographie, § 7.

known inscription in Mathurā on the Jamnā, where Brāhmī was the common alphabet, also in inscriptions and on coins. We even possess a Kharoshṭhī record from Patna. But the plaque on which it is written has evidently been left there by a person who came from the north-west. We do not know exactly how far the use of Kharoshṭhī extended towards the west. Coins with Kharoshṭhī legends have been found in Seistān and Kandahār, but the westernmost Kharoshṭhī inscriptions which have been found are from Khawat in Afghanistan and, side by side with Brāhmī records, from the Thal valley in Baluchistan. And even here we have every reason for assuming that the alphabet was brought and used by immigrants from the east. For it is little suited for the requirements of Iranian languages, and we have nothing to show that the dialect in which most Kharoshṭhī records are written was ever spoken as a vernacular much further east than Jālalābād.

The northernmost Kharoshṭhī records come from Tīrath in Swāt and Khalatse in Ladakh, and in the south we have some fragments from Mohenjo Daro in the Lārkāna district and Kharoshṭhī legends on the coins of some of the oldest of the Western Kshatrapas. But such stray instances do not prove anything more for the proper Kharoshṭhī area than the Kharoshṭhī word lipikareṇa in the Siddāpur edicts of Aśoka. The Kharoshṭhī area proper may be defined as extending from about 69° to 73° 30′ E. and from the Hindu Kush to about 33° N., and there can be little doubt that its place of origin was Gandhāra, perhaps more especially Taxila.

Professor Lévi's theory. Professor Sylvain Lévi has given a different account of the origin of Kharoshṭhī.¹ From a notice in Chinese Buddhist literature, according to which the correct form of the name Shu-le, i. e. Kāshgar, is K'ia-lu-shu-la(n)-lê, which, according to M. Lévi, corresponds to Sanskrit Kharoshṭra, he draws the conclusion that the correct name of the alphabet was Kharoshṭrā, and that this name means 'the script of Kharoshṭra', i. e. Kāshgar.

Messrs. O. Franke and R. Pischel protested against this explanation,<sup>2</sup> and M. Lévi <sup>3</sup> modified his theory and maintained that *Kharoshṭrī* was the script of *Kharoshṭra*, and this again an old Indian designation of the country between India and China. Franke objected <sup>4</sup> that we have no such Sanskrit word as *Kharoshṭra*, that the Chinese *K'ia-lu-shu-tan-lê* can hardly be a rendering of such a form, and that the Indian name of the alphabet is given as *Kharoshṭī*, *Kharoṣṭṭhā* in Indian sources.

So far as I can see, M. Lévi's theory is hardly reconcilable with what we know about the history of the alphabet.

It is true that numerous Kharoshṭhī documents have been found in Chinese Turkestan, notably in the eastern oases to the south of the desert, and that the only known Kharoshṭhī manuscript comes from the Khotan country. The alphabet is, however, everywhere used for writing an Indian language, and we should a priori be inclined to think that it was brought to Turkestan by Indian immigrants. Moreover, the manuscript and the documents belong to a comparatively late date, none of them being apparently older than the second century A. D.

In India, on the other hand, the use of Kharoshthī can be traced back to the third century B. c. Moreover, Bühler seems to me to have proved definitely that it has been evolved from Aramaic to suit the exigencies of an Indian language, and we know that Aramaic was used in the Achaemenian offices and also that it was used in north-western India. At the time when Kharoshthī came into existence there does not seem to have

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> BEFEO, ii, 1902, pp. 246 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> BEFEO, iv, 1904, pp. 543 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> SBAW, 1903, pp. 184 ff., 735 ff.

<sup>4</sup> SBAW, 1905, pp. 238 ff.

been any Indian settlement in Turkestan, which was then peopled by various nomadic tribes, who do not seem to have been in possession of any developed civilization.

It therefore seems to me that we must accept Bühler's view about the origin of Name of the Kharoshṭhī. I also think that he was right in assuming that the name was in India alphabet. considered to mean 'the script invented by Kharoshṭha', though it is quite possible that it is due to a popular etymology of an Aramaic word meaning 'writing', which sounded like kharoṭṭha and was Sanskritized as kharoshṭha, ass-lip.¹

I am not, however, in this place concerned with the origin and the older history of Kharoshṭhī. The inscriptions published in this volume do not belong to the period when the script first began to be used, and none of them can be brought into connexion with the Achaemenians or with the Mauryans, who succeeded them as rulers over northwestern India.

Most of them belong to the period when new conquerors had made themselves masters of the country, after the downfall of the Mauryan empire, and the oldest of them can be directly connected with these foreign invaders.

Three such peoples are often mentioned together in Indian sources: the Yavanas, the Śakas, and the Pahlavas, and they are all represented in Kharoshṭhī inscriptions.

The Yavanas or Yonas, i.e. the Greeks, had already made their appearance on The Indian soil before the Mauryan dynasty came into being. It was, however, only at a Yavanas. somewhat later date that they began to penetrate the north-western provinces in earnest. In the first half of the second century B.C. Greek rulers crossed the Hindukush and made themselves masters of the Kābul country and north-western India: the houses of Euthydemus and Eucratides. And Greek princes held their own in these districts down to the first century B.C.

Demetrius, who seems to have made himself master of parts of India about 175 B.C., began to use Kharoshṭhī in his coin legends, and this practice was continued down to the last Greek ruler in the Kābul valley, Hermaeus, in the first century A.D.

Most of these rulers are only known from their coins, and our information about them is rather scanty. We can, however, see that their conquest led to the result that Greek notions came to exercise a certain influence in the Indian borderland, notably in the framing of the calendar and in the development of Buddhist art.

None of the Greek rulers known from coins or other sources is mentioned in Kharoshṭhī inscriptions, and there are only faint traces of the Greeks in them. A meridarkha Theūdora, i. e.  $\mu\epsilon\rho\iota\delta\acute{a}\rho\chi\eta$ s Theodorus, is mentioned in an inscription which has been found in Swāt, but on a portable object, so that we do not know exactly its place of origin. Another inscription, which has been dug out at Taxila, also contains the same title, but the name of the meridarkh has been lost. Finally the name Theūdama occurs on a seal stone found in Bajaur.

These records do not teach us anything new. The two meridarkhs are mentioned as establishing Buddhist relics and sanctuaries, but we knew beforehand that the Greeks in India often assimilated themselves to the religion and civilization of their subjects.

The successors of the Greeks, the Sakas and Pahlavas, play a much more prominent role in Kharoshthī inscriptions. Some of their chief rulers and leaders are mentioned by name, and their history forms the basis of the chronological questions connected with these records. The inscriptions themselves are one of the principal sources for our knowledge of an important period of Indian history. But they cannot be used as such

without a certain familiarity with the chief features of the history of the Sakas and Pahlavas.

The Sakas.

The Śakas are frequently mentioned in Indian literature, especially in the epics, but very little information can be gathered from such sources, if we abstract from some Jaina accounts which will be utilized below. They are spoken of as belonging to the barbarous peoples who will rule in the Kaliyuga, or as degraded Kshatriyas. They are mentioned together with other north-western peoples, such as Kāmbojas and Yavanas, but also in other connexions. We hear about their being uprooted by Vikramāditya, the reputed founder of the Vikrama era, and another well-known Indian reckoning is designated as the Śaka era. The Purāṇas speak about eighteen (or sixteen) Śaka rulers following after the Gardabhillas and remaining in power for 380 years, &c.

The last-mentioned notice evidently refers us to the Western Kshatrapas of Surāshṭra and Mālava, who are not represented in Kharoshṭhī inscriptions, though they were evidently of the same stock as the Śakas of the north-west. The others are rather vague and leave the impression that the term Śaka was used in a lax way.

It has always been recognized that the word Saka is the same name which is handed down in Iranian and classical sources as saka, and most scholars agree in identifying it with the Sai, old pronunciation Sak, of Chinese annals. There is also a general consensus of opinion to the effect that the Sakas were foreigners and Iranians. The genuine form of the name is accordingly Saka, with a dental s, and the Indian Saka looks like a popular etymology, connecting the name with the base sak, to be strong, powerful, able.

These identifications make it possible to utilize classical, Iranian, and Chinese sources for the reconstruction of the history of the Sakas.

Classical authors about Sakas.

The earliest Greek author who wrote about the Sakai seems to have been Hecataeus from Milctus (about 500 B.C.), whose writings have not, however, been preserved. Then comes Herodotus (about 490-420 B.C.), who mentions them in several places.

From him we learn that the Persians used the designation Saka in a loose way, to denote all Scythian peoples, e.g. the Amyrgians, who, according to Hellanicus (about 450), lived in some plain, perhaps the plains east of the Caspian or north of the Jaxartes, though Professor Thomas is inclined to think of the Gedrosian desert or part of the Persian desert.

Also Pliny and other classical authors are in agreement with this statement of Herodotus.

Location of Sakai.

The stray references found in classical literature give us some idea of the locality where classical authors placed the Sakai. Herodotus mentions them together with the Bactrians (i. 153; vii. 64; ix. 113), and with India (vii. 9), and (iii. 93) as forming the fifteenth nomos of the Persian empire together with the Kaspioi. Arrian (Anabasis, iii. 8, 3; vii. 10, 5) speaks of them in connexion with Bactrians and Sogdians; Curtius Rufus (v. 9, 5; vi. 3, 9; vii. 4, 6) with Indians; Strabo (xi. 8, 2) and Pliny (l.c.) locate them beyond the Jaxartes, and the former states (xi. 6, 2) that the ancient historiographers of the Hellenes called the tribes beyond the Caspian Sea partly Sakai, partly Massagetai, without having accurate knowledge about them, and, in another place

4 JRAS, 1906, p. 199.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>. Karlgren, no. 773.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. yii. 64: τούτους δὲ ἐόντας Σκύθας ᾿Αμυργίους Σάκας ἐκάλεον οἰ γὰρ Πέρσαι πάντας τοὺς Σκύθας καλέουσι Σάκας.

<sup>3 &#</sup>x27;Αμύργιον πεδίον Σάκων.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Naturalis historia, vi. 50: 'ultra (sc. Jaxartem) sunt Scytharum populi. Persae illos Sagas in [uni]versum appellavere a proxima gente.'

(xi. 8, 2), that, beginning from the Caspian Sea, most of the Scythians were called Daai, farther to the east, however, preferably Massagetai and Sakai. He also (xi. 8, 2) gives the information that they were mostly nomads, and had spread over a large territory: they had occupied Bactria and the best district of Armenia, which was thence called Sakasene, and they had even advanced to the Cappadocians, where, however, the Persian štrategoi had annihilated them.1

According to Megasthenes,2 the Hemodon mountain separates India in the north from that part of Scythia which is inhabited by those Scythians who are called Sakai. Ptolemy (vi. 13) locates the country of the Sakai between 35° and 49° N. and between 125° and 143° E. Its frontiers are, according to him: to the north and north-east, Scythia on this side of Imaon oros; to the east, Scythia on the other side of that mountain; to the south, Imaon oros; and to the west, Sogdiana, the upper Jaxartes being here partly the borderline. According to his map, the way from Bactria to the Sakai passes through the country of the Sogdians between the Oxus and the Jaxartes, and we are furnished with the names of several Saka tribes: Karatai, Komaroi, Komedai, Massagetai, Grynaioi, Skythai, Toornai, and Byltai.

Ktesias 3 mentions Roxanake as their royal city, and that name is still preserved in the present Roshan.

It is evident that the old home of the Sakai was considered to be in the Pamir country, to the north of the Hindukush and east of Bactria and Sogdiana, and that Saka tribes were further considered to exist to the east of the Caspian Sea and beyond the Taxartes.4

Later on Sakas are also mentioned in the present Seistan, the oldest source being here Isidor of Charax, who lived under the emperor Augustus.<sup>5</sup> It is possible that these Sakas are referred to by Orosius under the name of Sacaraucae, in the description of 'Caucasus', where he speaks of Mount Oscobares, situated between the Dahae, the Sacaraucae, and the Parthyenae.<sup>6</sup> If his source were Agrippa, who died in the year 12 B.C., this statement would take us a little further back, and it is perhaps probable that the Sakas came to Seistan about the end of the second century B.C., as we shall see later on.

Another source from which knowledge about the Sakas can be derived are the Persian in-Persian inscriptions of Darius.7

In the Behistun inscription i. 6, Darius mentions the countries which he inherited, Sakas. and Saka here comes between Bactria, Sogdiana, and Gandhāra on one side, and Thatagush, Arachosia, and the Makas on the other. In ii. 2 Saka is mentioned last among the provinces which revolted while Darius was in Babylon, after Parthia, Margiana, and the

<sup>2</sup> Cf. Diodorus Siculus, ii. 35, 1: την δε προς τας άρκτους το Ἡμωδον όρος διείγρει της Σκυθίας ην κατοικούσι των Σκυθών οί προσαγορευόμενοι Σάκαι.

3 Nicolaus Damascenus, 6: 'Ρωξανάκη ή πόλις ένθα Σάκαις τὸ βασίλειον ήν.

6 Cf. Stathmoi Parthikoi, 18: ἐντεῦθεν Σακαστανή Σάκων Σκύθων ή καὶ Παραιτακηνή; cf. Ptolemy, iv. 19, 3, where the last name is given as Τατακηνή.

3 i. 2, 16: 'inter Dahas, Sacaraucas et Parthyenas mons Oscobares ubi Ganges fluvius oritur et laser naschur'.

 $<sup>^1</sup>$  xi. 8, 4: καὶ γὰρ τὴν Bακτριανὴν κατέσχον καὶ τῆς Αρμενίας κατεκτήσαντο τὴν ἀρίστην γῆν, ην καὶ ἐπώνυμον ἐαυτῶν κατέλιπον την Σακασηνήν· καὶ μέχρι Καππαδόκων καὶ μάλιστα τῶν πρὸs Εὐξείνο οθς Ποντικούς νθν καλοθσι προήλθον. Έπιθέμενοι δ' αὐτοὶς πανηγυρίζουσιν ἀπὸ τῶν λαφύρων οἱ τότε ταύτη τῶν Περσῶν στρατηγοὶ νύκτωρ ἄρδην αὐτοὺς ἡφάνισαν.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Cf. A. Herrmann, Paulys Realencyclopädie der classischen Altertumswissenschaft, Neue Bearbeitung, Stuttgart, 1920, sub voce Sakai.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> I quote from H. C. Tolman, Ancient Persian Lexicon and the Texts of the Achaemenidan Inscriptions, New York, Cincinnati, Chicago, 1908.

Thatagush. In the Persepolis inscription e 2 the Sakas are mentioned among the eastern countries, after Arachosia, India, and Gandhāra, and before the Makas. In the Naksh-i-Rustam inscription a 3 we have another enumeration: Media, Susiana, Parthia, Aria, Bactria, Sogdiana, Khorasmia, Zranka, Arachosia, the Thatagush, Gandhāra, India, Sakā Haumavarkā, Sakā Tigrakhaudā, Babylon, Assyria, Arabia, Egypt, Cappadocia, Sparda, Ionia, Sakā tyaiy taradraya (or paradraya 1), Skudra, the Takabarā Ionians, Puntians, Kushians, Maxyes, and Karkians.

From these enumerations we can hardly draw any other inference than that there were several Saka tribes, and that they all belonged to the eastern parts of the empire. The Naksh-i-Rustam inscription, which mentions Zranka, i. e. Drangiana, without any reference to Sakas, might be taken as an indication that they were not, in those days, settled in Seistān. But such an inference is not necessary.

A more precise localization can be derived from the gold tablet of Darius,<sup>2</sup> where his empire is defined as extending from the Sakas beyond Sogdiana (hacā Sakaibiš tyaiy para Sugdam) to Ethiopia (ā Kūšā); from India (hacā Hidauv) to Sardis (ā Spardā). Here we have a clear indication that Sakas were settled to the east of Sogdiana, i. e. where classical authors locate the old Saka country.

It will be seen that the Naksh-i-Rustam inscription mentions some individual Saka tribes: the Tigrakhauda, the Haumavarka, and those 'beyond the sea' (taradraya or paradraya).

The Sakā Haumavarkā have been identified with the Amyrgioi, who have been mentioned above and who cannot be located with certainty.

The Sakā Tigrakhaudā are evidently referred to in the Behistun inscription v. 4, where we read: 'with my army I went to the Saka country, towards the Saka country (hada kārā Sakām adam ashiyavam abiy Sakam)'. Then follows a mutilated passage, ... m tigrām b. r. t. y., where some scholars have found a reference to the Tigris, while others, apparently with more justification, supply khaudām tigrām barantiy, 'who wear a pointed cap', and see a reference to the Sakā Tigrakhauda. After a new lacuna follows a mutilated passage: 'towards that sea (... iya abiy draya ava), ..., I crossed in rafts (?)... the Sakas I smote (...āh...ā pisā viyatarayam... Sakā avājanam)'.

If the restoration khaudam tigrām barantiy is right, we learn that the Saka Tigra-khauda lived beyond a sea, and this may help us to locate them.

The designation Tigrakhauda, 'of pointed caps', has been explained by what Herodotus says about the Amyrgioi, that they used pointed headgear. It has usually been assumed that Herodotus has confounded the Amyrgioi with the 'wearers of pointed caps'. It seems, however, that such headgear was common with all those tribes, though only one of them is named in these inscriptions after this apparel. Also Herodotus knows a similar name, viz. Orthokorybantioi, which looks like a translation of Tigrakhaudā, and states that they formed the tenth nomos of the empire of Darius, together with the Parikanioi, i. e. the inhabitants of modern Ferghāna. Professor A. Hermann is therefore probably right in assuming that the Orthokorybantioi, i. e. some Sakā Tigrakhaudā,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. L. H. Gray, JRAS, 1927, p. 99.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Sidney Smith, JRAS, 1926, pp. 433 ff.; L. H. Gray, JRAS, 1927, pp. 97 ff.; E. Herzfeld, MASI, 34, 1928.

S Cf. vii. 64: Σάκαι δὲ οἰ Σκύθαι περὶ μὲν τῆσι κεφαλῆσι κυρβασίας ἐς δξὰ ἀπηγμένας ὀρθὰς εἶχον πεπηγυίας.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Cf. iii. 92 and Kiessling, Zur Geschichte der ersten Regierungsjahre des Darius Hystaspes, Dissertation, Leipzig, 1900, p. 17.

lived to the east of the Caspian Sea, and that the mutilated passage in the Behistun inscription refers to an expedition against them: Darius proceeded towards the Saka country, towards the Caspian Sea, and then crossed not the sea, but the mouth of the Oxus. This explanation seems to me to be preferable to that of Professor Thomas, which has been accepted by Professor Rapson, according to which the sea (draya) was the Hāmūn lake, and the Sakas those of Seistān. We have not, so far as I can see, sufficient reason for assuming that Sakas had settled in Seistān in the days of Darius.

If we compare the statements of Herodotus with the inscriptions, we thus become inclined to assume that the Orthokorybantioi were the Sakas beyond the sea, who, according to the Behistun inscription wore pointed caps and could therefore be named after this headgear, but that there may also have been another Saka tribe, in the neighbourhood of the Amyrgians, to whom the designation Tigrakhauda was more especially applied by the Persians.

The indications in the Persian inscriptions thus lead us to the same localization as the classical sources: to the east of Sogdiana, and to the east of the Caspian Sea and the country on the Jaxartes.

Also the Chinese annals contain some information about the Sakas and their old Chinese home. As mentioned above, the Sakas are there called Sai or, in the pronunciation of annals about the Tang period, Sak. In the oldest sources they are frequently spoken of as the Sakas. Sai-wang, a designation which will be dealt with later on.

We hear that the Sai-wang were, some time before 160 B.C., driven out from their old home by another tribe, the Yüe-chi, with which we shall have to occupy ourselves later on.<sup>3</sup> The Yüe-chi were, in their turn,<sup>4</sup> driven out by the Wu-sun, whose settlements have been defined by Professor Franke as extending from Urumchi to the west of Issik-kul, from the Dzungarian desert and down towards the Tarim.

Here accordingly Saka tribes must have been settled in the beginning of the second century B.C., near the Issik-kul.

We further read in the Ts'ien Han-shu the Annals of the Earlier Han Dynasty: 6 the Sai race split up and formed a series of states. From Shu-le (Kāshgar) on towards the north-west, what belongs to the states of Hiu-sün and Yüan-tu are all originally tribes of the old Sai.'

According to Professor Franke Hiu-sün and Yüan-tu should be located to the north-west of Kāshgar, below the south-western spurs of the Tien-shan and on the southern affluents of the Narin, Hiu-sün more towards Ferghāna, Yüan-tu to the east of Hiu-sün and extending towards the country of Wu-sun. Professor A. Herrmann (l. c.) locates Yüan-tu about the Russian fort Irkeshlan and Hiu-sün in the Alai valley.

We thus arrive at about the same localization as from the classical and Iranian sources, and learn that the old Saka territory extended as far east as the Issik-kul.

The Ts'ien Han-shu speak of the Sakas as having had a large distribution and of Wanderings their having founded many states, and we have seen that also Strabo has some remarks of the Sakas. to the same effect. From Chinese sources we learn that the Sakas were seriously affected by the great movement which began in Central Asia in the second century B.C.

We read in the Ts'ien Han-shu: 6 'the Yüc-chi had been conquered by the Hiung-nu and had, in the west, attacked the Sai-wang. The Sai-wang had fled southwards

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JRAS, 1906, pp. 181 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The Cambridge History of India, i, p. 564.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. e.g. Franke, Beiträge, pp. 46 ff.

<sup>4</sup> Ibidem, pp. 15 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Chap. 96 a, fol. 10 vo; Franke, Beiträge, pp. 47 ff.

<sup>6</sup> Chap. 61, fol. 4 vo; cf. Franke, Beiträge, pp. 46 ff.

and settled in a distant country'. We shall see later on, in connexion with the Yüe-chï, that their defeat at the hands of the Hiung-nu had been effected in 176 B.C., and that they were themselves driven out of the old Saka country about 160 B.C. The Saka exodus alluded to in the Ts'ien Han-shu must accordingly fall between these two dates.

Sai-wang.

The designation Sai-wang has given rise to much discussion. It consists of two words, sai, old sak, which has been identified with saka, and wang, a well-known Chinese word, which means 'king, prince, sovereign'. Sai-wang accordingly seems to mean 'Saka-king', or 'Saka-kings', and this is a priori not a likely designation of an individual tribe.

Professor Franke therefore proposed to explain wang in this name not as the usual Chinese word meaning 'king', but as part of the name itself. Professor Herrmann' wanted to correct Sai-wang to Sai-yü, older pronunciation Sak-giok, and to explain this as corresponding to an Iranian Sakā rawakā, which does not, it is true, exist, but which he found again in the designations Sakarauloi, Saraucae, of classical authors, with which we shall have to deal below.

We have not, however, any right to correct the Chinese text, and Professor Franke's explanation only creates a new difficulty, because we have no information about any tribe being called *Sakawang* or some similar name. Moreover, the designation 'Saka-king' for some tribe or dynasty is known from other sources.

In the Allahābād posthumous stone pillar inscription of Samudragupta 2 we read in l. 23 of certain successes achieved by the Gupta emperor in connexion with Daivaputrashahi-shahanushahi-Saka-murundaih Saimhalakadibhis cha, where Saka-murunda is evidently a designation of a similar kind as Daivaputrashahi and Shahanushahi. Now murunda is almost certainly a Saka word meaning 'master', 'lord'. It seems to occur in the form muroda, i. e. muronda, as a title of King Kanishka in the Zeda inscription; it is found in the compound hora-murndaga in certain Brāhmī inscriptions from Mathurā,3 and Professor Lüders has further compared the word horamurta of the Māṇikiāla inscription, explaining hora as the well-known Saka word for 'gift, donation', and horamurudaga as corresponding to Sanskrit dānapali, so that murunda must mean 'master, lord'. Professor Lévi has further shown 5 that murunda is well known from Indian literature and occurs, in the form mao-lun, as a title of Indian rulers in Chinese sources. I have therefore 'identified Sakamurunda with the Chinese Sai-wang, Saka-lord, where wang is simply a Chinese translation of the Saka word murunda, just as this same word was translated into Indian as svamin in the titulature of the Indian Saka dynasty known as that of the Western Kshatrapas.

There was accordingly a Saka tribe known as the Saka-murundas, evidently because their chiefs were styled murunda, while other Saka tribes used other titles, a state of affairs which is well attested. In the Saka texts from the Khotan country we find royal titles such as rre and shshau; in the Jaina text Kālakāchāryakathānaka the chiefs are sahis and their overlord sahānu sāhi, a title which recurs in the shahānu shāhi of the Allahābād praśasti; and the Kushāna dynasty of Kanishka uses in coin legends the title shaonano shao, i. e. shaunānu shau.

A designation such as Saka-murunda, Sai-wang is therefore quite natural.

<sup>1 1.</sup> c., sub voce Sacaraucae.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, iii, pp. 1 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Ed. R. D. Bandyopadhyaya, J&PASB, v, 1909, pp. 242 ff.

<sup>4</sup> SBAW, 1913, pp. 420 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Mélanges Charles de Harlez, Lcyde, 1896, pp. 176 ff.

<sup>6</sup> SBAW, 1916, pp. 790 ff.

We have already seen that Strabo mentions a Saka conquest of Bactria, where the Classical Greek kings were ousted by Scythian nomads, and some of these nomadic tribes are authors about Saka enumerated by him, notably, the Asioi, Pasianoi, Tocharoi, and Sakarauloi.<sup>2</sup> exodus.

Sakas thus were instrumental in overthrowing the Greek empire in Bactria, and some of these Sakas seem to be called Sakarauloi.

This name occurs in various forms. One of the manuscripts of Strabo has Sakarauloi. Sarakauloi; Lucianus (Macrob. 15) speaks of Sakaurakoi (Σακαύρακοι Σκύθαι); Ptolemy (vi. 14, 14) of Sagaraukai (Σαγαραθκαι); Orosius (i. 2, 16) of Sacaraucae, and Trogus Pompeius (Prolog. xli f.) of Sarancae, i. e. evidently Saraucae.

I have already mentioned that Professor Herrmann identifies the Sakarauloi or Sakaraukoi with the Sai-wang, and it seems to me that he must be right, though I cannot accept his correction of the Chinese word. It is tempting to see in rauloi, raukoi, urakoi, or how the correct form may be, a word formed from the same base as Khotanī Saka rre, king, rrvīya, royal, and consider Sakarauloi, Sakaraukoi as a rendering of Sakamurunda into another dialect, just as we find different forms of the old xshayathiya such as shāhi, shau, xshēvanē in different Iranian languages.3

We do not know whence the Sakarauloi came on their march towards Bactria, Home of Strabo's account is not quite clear. If the καί after Σακάραυλοι has come in by mistake, Sakarauloi. as is often held to be the case, they seem to have come from the old Saka country to the east of Sogdiana and the Jaxartes, and we should become inclined to connect their inroad with the events narrated in the Ts'ien Han-shu. On the whole it seems to me that such was probably the case, though it is hardly possible to prove that Professor Thomas was wrong in thinking that the Saraucae or Sacaraucae started from the country north of Parthia and between the Caspian and the Aral Sea.

Some remarks about these events are contained in the extracts of Trogus. In the Trogus on 41st book he had dealt with the establishment of an empire in Bactria by Diodotus, the conquest of which event took place about the middle of the third century B.C. In that connexion he Bactria. gave an account of how Scythian tribes, the Saraucae and the Asiani, took possession of Bactria and Sogdiana.<sup>5</sup> Trogus' text has usually been constructed to mean that the Scythian invasion took place during the reign of Diodotus. There is, however, no indication to show that the Greek power in Bactria was weakened in his days. He and his successors remained firm in the possession of the country down to the time of Eucratides and Demetrius in the second century A.D. But then evil times set in, and we learn from Justin that the Bactrians lost both their empire and their freedom, being

<sup>1</sup> xi. 8, 4: καὶ γὰρ τὴν Βακτριανὴν κατέσχον.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. xi. 8, 2: μάλιστα δὲ γνώριμοι γεγόνασι τῶν νομάδων οἱ τοὺς Ελληνας ἀφελόμενοι τὴν Βακτριανήν "Ασιοι καὶ Πασιανοὶ καὶ Τόχαροι καὶ Σακάραυλοι καὶ όρμηθέντες ἀπὸ τῆς περαίας τοῦ Ίαξάρτου της κατά Σάκας καὶ Σογδιανούς ην κατείχον Σάκαι καὶ τῶν Δαῶν οἱ μὲν προσαγορεύονται "Απαρνοι οἱ δὲ Εάνθιοι οἱ δὲ Πίσσουροι. οἱ μὲν οὖν "Απαρνοι πλησιαίτατα τῆ "Υρκανία παράκεινται καὶ τη κατ' αυτήν θαλάττη. οἱ δὲ λοιποὶ διαμένουσι καὶ μέχρι της ἀντιπαρηκούσης τη Ἀρία.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Charpentier, ZDMG, 71, pp. 368 f., follows up a suggestion of Professor Jacobi that there may be some connexion between Sakarauloi, &c., and Sagakūla, the country of the Sakas on the Indus, according to the Kālakāchāryakathānaka. He thinks that the second part of the word may be contained in Ku-lang-na, mentioned as a kingdom by Hüan-tsang and corresponding to the modern Kurān in the upper part of the valley of the Kokcha. Both the Greek and the Indian traditions may have been wrong in seeing the word Saka in the name, which may ultimately be connected withthe modern Sarikol.

<sup>4</sup> JRAS, 1906, p. 186.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> 'in Bactrianis autem rebus ut a Diodoto rege constitutum est. Deinde quo repugnante Scythicae gentes Saraucae et Asiani Bactram occupaverunt et Sogdianos.'

harassed by the Sogdians, the Arachoti, the Drangae, and the Arei, and finally oppressed by the Parthians.<sup>1</sup>

I therefore think that we must either assume that some words have been lost or else interpret Trogus in a different way, taking the quo of quo repugnante to be the interrogative and not the relative pronoun. He had narrated how Diodotus established his empire in Bactria and incidentally added some remarks about a later ruler, during whose reign the Saraucae and Asiani entered upon the stage and involved him in war.

Marquart \* explains Trogus' statement to mean that the Saraucae occupied Bactria and the Asiani Sogdiana, and though it is not necessary to interpret the text in this way, he is probably right, since we know from Strabo that Saka tribes occupied Bactria. I further accept the identification of the Saraucae with the Sakarauloi.

In the Prologus of the 42nd book of Trogus there is a further notice about the Saraucae: 'added are the Scythian matters: the Asiani (becoming) kings of the Tocharians and the annihilation of the Saraucae'. It seems necessary to infer that the Saraucae had been living in the Tocharian country, and that, at a later date, they were ousted by the Asiani, who had in the meantime become the rulers of the Tocharians.

Now we shall see later on that the Asiani are probably identical with the Yüe-chi of the Chinese annals, and that the Tocharians were settled in and to the east of Bactria, when the Yüe-chi became their masters. We therefore seem to have good reason for combining the classical and the Chinese accounts in order to reconstruct the course of events.

I have already drawn attention to the Chinese accounts about the encounter between the Yüe-chi and the Sai-wang, and I shall have to return to them later on in connexion with the Yüe-chi. We have seen that the latter had been conquered by the Hiung-nu in 176 B.C. and had subsequently entered the country of the Sai-wang in the neighbourhood of Issik-kul, the Sai-wang having gone southwards and settled in a distant country. We shall see below that the Chinese had something more to say about this distant country, but it may be surmised that the Sai-wang exodus was the beginning of the Scythian pressure on the Greek empire in Bactria, and it is a curious fact that it seems to coincide with the Indian conquests of Demetrius, which may, or may not, be due to a desire for strengthening his position in another direction.

About 160 B.C. the Yüe-chi were then driven out of the old Sai-wang country by the Wu-sun, assisted by the Hiung-nu. This then seems to have been the time referred to by Trogus, when the Asiani, i. e. the Yüe-chi, took Sogdiana and the Saraucae Bactria.

After Chang K'ien had returned from his visit to the Western Countries in 126 B.C., he submitted a report of the state of things as he had found it. The Yüe-chï were then masters of the Ta-hia, i. e. the Tocharians, but their capital was still to the north of the Oxus.

At this time, therefore, the position of the Saraucae must have become a different one, but we cannot draw the inference that they had been entirely annihilated.

In the Hou Han-shu, the annals of the Later Han, the situation is, as we shall see, quite different. The Yüe-chi have transferred their capital to the south of the Oxus, and there is evidently no room for the Saraucae. The Hou Han-shu deals with the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. xli. 6: 'Bactriani autem per varia bella iactati non regnum tantum verum etiam libertatem amiserunt, siquidem Sogdianorum et Arachotorum et Drangarum et Areorum bellis fatigati ad postremum ab invalidioribus Parthis velut exsangues oppressi sunt.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Ērānšahr, p. 204

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Additae his res Scythicae. Reges Thocarorum Asiani interitusque Saraucarum.

<sup>4</sup> Cf. Franke, Beiträge, p. 15.

events of the period A.D. 25-220, but we have no means for inferring when the new state of things in Bactria was established.

We may only surmise that the Yüe-chi began to exercise pressure on the Saraucae shortly after 160 B.C., and they had succeeded in materially weakening their position when Chang Kien visited the country about 130 B.C. It is probable, but cannot be proved, that these events gave rise to a new movement of the Sakas in Bactria, and it is possible that their eyes were now turned towards Seistan, where we find them about the times of Christ, as we have already seen.

The Chinese annals, however, also give information about further Saka wanderings. Sakas in The Ts'ien Han-shu, chap. 96 b, fol. 10 vo, runs: 'the Great Yüe-chi went towards the Ki-pin west and made themselves masters of Ta-hia, but the Sai-wang went southwards and made themselves masters of Ki-pin'. We also hear something about the route they followed: 1 'the Sai-wang went towards the south and passed the hien-tu (the hanging passage)'.

The hien-lu is also mentioned in other places. In the Weï-lio, the history of the The Wei Dynasty (A.D. 220-264), we read that the southern route from China westwards hanging went via Ts'ung-ling (the Pamirs) and hien-tu to the country of the Ta Yüe-chi, whose empire at that time extended over a large part of India. According to Chavannes,<sup>2</sup> this is the Bolor route through the Yasin valley, by which travellers went from Wakhān to the Indus and further to Kashmir and Udyana. It is practically the same route which the Chinese pilgrim Fa-hien followed.

In his Serindia 3 Sir Aurel Stein shows how the pilgrim went from Kie-ch'a (Kāshgar) over the Pamirs to the country of T'o-li, the modern Darel on the right bank of the Indus, opposite Chilas. Thence he followed the Indus towards the west. 'The way was difficult and rugged (running along) a bank exceedingly precipitous, which rose up there, a hill-like wall of rock, 10,000 cubits from the base. When one approached the edge of it, his eyes became unsteady, and if he wished to go forward in the same direction, there was no place on which he could place his foot, and beneath were the waters of the river called Indus. In former times men had chiselled paths along the rocks, and distributed ladders on the face of them to the number altogether of 700, at the bottom of which was a suspension bridge of ropes, by which the river was crossed, its banks being there eighty paces apart.'

This was the hanging passage, and, according to Sir Aurel, the map shows 'that even at the present day the main track along the Indus crosses below Darēl to the left bank and does not regain the right bank until Mirabat, some eight miles above the side valley of Kānda belonging to the Swāt'.

After having passed the hien-tu, the Sai-wang, as we have seen, made themselves Kipin. masters of Ki-pin. According to Chavannes Ki-pin means Kashmir from the period of the Han and down to that of the northern Wei, and was only in the T'ang period identified with the country about the northern affluents of the Kābul river, the present Kafiristan. It seems to me, however, that Professor Franke must be right when he says 5 that the Chinese do not seem to have had any clear idea about the position and limits of the country. We read in the Ts'ien Han-shu: 6 'The capital of the kingdom of Ki-pin

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Ts'ien Han-shu, chap. 96 b, fol. 1 v°.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> T'oung Pao, II, vi, p. 529<sup>5</sup>.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> pp. 5 ff. <sup>5</sup> l. c., pp. 59 f.

<sup>4</sup> l. c., p. 5384.

<sup>6</sup> Chap. 96 a, fol. 10 vo; cf. A. Wylie, Journal of the Anthropological Institute, x, 1881, pp. 33 ff.; Franke, l. c., pp. 63 ff.

is the city of Sün-sien,1 distant from Ch'ang-an 12,200 li. The country is not under the control of the Governor-General. The numbers of families, persons, and picked troops are very large, as it is a great country. The seat of the Governor-General lies north-east, at a distance of 6,840 li. The kingdom of Wu-ch'a 2 lies 2,250 li to the east. The kingdom of Nan-tou is nine days' journey to the north-east. The country joins the Ta Yüe-chi on the north-west, Wu-i-shan-li (Arachosia) on the south-west.... The land of Ki-pin is flat, and the climate mild and agreeable. The country produces medicago sativa, various herbs, strange trees, sandal wood, sophora japonica, rottlera japonica, bamboo, and the varnish tree. They cultivate the five grains (i.e. hemp, millet, rice, wheat, and pulse), grapes, and various fruits. They manure their gardens In the low and damp ground they grow rice. In winter they eat raw and fields. The people are ingenious in carving, ornamenting, engraving, and inlayvegetables. ing; in building palaces and mansions, weaving mats, ornamental perforation, and embroidery; and excel at cooking. They have gold, silver, copper, and tin, of which they make vessels, and expose them for sale. They have a gold and a silver currency. On the obverse of their money is a man on horseback, and on the reverse a man's face. country produces the Indian ox, the buffalo, the elephant, great dogs, large apes, and the pea-fowl; also pearls of different kinds, coral, amber, rock crystal, vitreous ware, camels, and domestic animals the same as other nations.

(China's) communications with Ki-pin began in the days of Wu-ti (140-85 B.C.). As it was distant and far away, Chinese troops could not come there. The king of the country, Wu-t'ou-lao, on several occasions put the Chinese envoys to death. When Wu-t'ou-lao died, his son succeeded him on the throne. He sent envoys to bring tribute. The captain at the barrier, Wên-chung, was sent to escort them home. The king again wished to do violence to Wên-chung. But Wên-chung became aware of this and, together with the son of the king of Yung-k'ü, Yin-mo-fu, he attacked Ki-pin and killed the king, whereafter Yin-mo-fu was installed as king of Ki-pin and received the seal and ribbon (of investiture).

Afterwards the sub-general, Chao-tê, went as envoy to Ki-pin. He got on bad terms with Yin-mo-fu. Yin-mo-fu put him in chains and killed his attendants, more than seventy persons in all. He then sent envoys, who were to submit a written apology. The emperor, Yüan-ti (48-33 B.c.), did not, however, take any notice of the distant countries. The envoys were therefore sent back to *hien-tu*; the relations were severed and no further communications were kept up.

In the time of the emperor, Ch'êng-ti (32-7 B.C.), envoys were again sent with presents and an apology. There was an intention to dispatch envoys to escort them back. But Tu-k'in addressed the Generalissimo, Wang-fêng, to the following effect.'

Then follows a long speech, in which Tu-k'in warns against entering into further communications. 'Those who bring offerings,' he says, 'are not dignitaries of the king's surroundings, but traders, low-caste people, who want to sell and to buy, and the offerings are a mere pretence.'

According to the Hou Han-shu, Ki-pin is reached from Tashkurgan via the hanging

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Old pronunciation siučn-siän, Karlgren, nos. 1142 and 799.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> To the east of hien-tu; cf. Franke, p. 58.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> South of Yüan-tu and east of the Ta Yüe-chi; cf. Franke, p. 59.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Old pronunciation uo-d'ou-lâu, Karlgren, nos. 1288, 1015, 516.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Old pronunciation *iwong-k'iust*, Karlgren, nos. 950, 493.

Old pronunciation ism-muât-p'iu, Karlgren, nos. 274, 636, 757.

passage, and lies on the way to Wu-i-shan-li. The Weï-shu 1 gives as its capital Shên-kien, south-west of Po-lu, states that the country is situated in the midst of four mountains, is 800 li from west to east and 300 from north to south, and then goes on to describe the country much in the same way as the Ts'ien Han-shu.

It will be seen that the Chinese notices are not quite clear. If we limit ourself to the Ts'ien Han-shu, which narrates the events connected with the wanderings of the Sakas in greatest detail, we shall, however, find that Ki-pin was to the south-east of the then country of the Yüe-chi, i.e. evidently south of the Hindukush; to the north-east of Arachosia and to the west of the Indus.

We cannot, therefore, well identify it with Kashmir, but it may have comprised the Swat valley, and it certainly extended westwards towards Arachosia. Whether it comprised Kao-fu (Kābul) or not, we cannot say. The Hou Han-shu, chap. 118, fol. 11 vo, states that that country never long belonged to any big state. Of the empires of T'ien-chu (India), Ki-pin, and An-si (Parthia), whichever was powerful, conquered it, and lost it again, when it became weak.

In favour of such a localization of Ki-pin, the country occupied by the Sai-wang, to the west of the Indus and below the Hindukush also speaks a notice in Hüan-tsang's description of Shang-mi, the present Mastūj, according to which the king of that country was of the Śākya race, for Śākya is, in this connexion, evidently a misunderstanding instead of Śaka.2 We may also compare the statement in Hemachandra's Abhidhānachintāmaņi, v. 960, Lampakas tu muraņdah syuh, the Lampākas would be muraņdas, which seems to show that the country of Lampaka, the present Laghman, had at a comparatively late date preserved the memory of the rule of the murandas, i. c. evidently the Saka-murundas, the Sai-wang.

Who the rulers mentioned in the passage of the Ts'ien Han-shu translated above were, and whether they had anything to do with the Sai-wang conquest, we cannot say. Professor A. Herrmann 3 thinks that Yin-mo-fu is a rendering of the same designation which Herodotus gives in the form Amyrgios, and that he was the Sai-wang who conquered Ki-pin, and also that he is identical with the Indian Saka ruler, Maues, Moga. But it is hardly possible to see an old amurga (Amyrgios) in the name Yin-mo-fu, and Moga does not, as we shall see, seem to be the first Saka conqueror of India. Moreover, the account of the Ts'ien Han-shu connects Yin-mo-fu with the emperor Yuan-ti (48-33 B.C.), while the Sai-wang conquest of Ki-pin apparently belongs to an earlier period. It therefore seems more probable that Yin-mo-fu was not a Saka, but belonged to another people and was instrumental in making an end to the Saka dominion in Ki-pin.

We have thus seen that Sakas had, at a comparatively early date, occupied Bactria, where they seem to have been ousted by the Yüe-chi. We have found them in Seistän about the times of Christ, when the country had already received its name from them, so that we may reasonably assume that they had been settled there for some time. It is therefore, as suggested above, probable that they settled in Seistan as a consequence of the pressure which the Yüe-chi began to exercise shortly after 160 B.C. Finally we hear about a Saka dominion in Ki-pin.

In the first century B.C. we now find Sakas, or as the Indians call them Śakas, Sakas in established in Sind and in the Panjāb, and the history of these Indian Sakas is of the India. utmost interest for our appreciation of the Kharoshthī inscriptions. Several of them

bear direct witness to the rule of Saka kings and chiefs, and they are themselves among the sources for our knowledge of the history of India in the Saka period.

This history is little known. We cannot say for certain when the Sakas first made their appearance in India or whence they came. There are no indications to show that they made important independent contributions to Indian civilization. But we get the impression that their rule gave rise to a certain fermentation, which became of importance. The influx of Greek notions and Greek art continued, and even if Indian civilization continues to bear an Indian stamp, there can hardly be much doubt that the crossing and intercrossing of ideas and ideals acted as a powerful ferment. It is scarcely a mere accident that Indian literature and civilization had a rich development during and after the Scythian period, and every student knows how important it was in the history of Indian Buddhism. The Sakas introduced new royal titles in India, and it seems probable that the political ideas underlying them were likewise partly assimilated. In civilization, however, the Sakas seem to have received more than they gave. On the other hand, they became the great intermediators through whom Indian civilization and Indian ideals spread to Central Asia and the far east.

Sources.

It is an important period, and we should like to know more about it. Our sources are, however, rather limited. In addition to the Kharoshthī and some Brāhmī inscriptions we have a series of coins and some references in literature. What is written in Sanskrit does not help us much, but some information can be gleaned from classical authors, from Jaina tradition, and from what we know about the general history of the period.

The Scythian period is a long one, extending from the first century B.C. down to the time of the imperial Guptas and even longer. More than one foreign people entered on the stage, and it is not always easy to keep them separated from each other. In the present place we shall, however, limit ourselves to the beginning of Scythian rule in India.

Classical authors.

Classical authors speak of the Indo-Scythians and their country Indo-Scythia. According to Ptolemy (vii. i, 55, 62) it extended on both sides of the Indus, from the Kābul river to the Arabic Sea. The delta was called Patalene, the country to the north and north-east Abiria, and the south-eastern province Syrastrene, i. e. Surāshṭra, the modern Kāṭhiāwār. Also Dionysius Periegeta¹ speaks about the 'Southern Scythians' as settled on the Indus, and his commentator, Eustathius, states that the Indo-Scythians are meant. In the Periplus Scythia, i. e. Indo-Scythia, is spoken of as being under Parthian rule. At the time of that work, i. e. in the second half of the first century A.D., Indo-Scythia accordingly seems to have come under the rule of the Parthians.

The inference which we can draw from these sources is, accordingly, to the effect that the stronghold of the Scythians, i.e. in this connexion the Sakas, was in the Indus country, and that the Saka conquest had been effected long before the second half of the first century A.D.

Jaina tradition. A similar result must be derived from the traditional accounts preserved by the Jainas. The most important one is contained in a work of unknown date, the Kālakā-chāryakathānaka.<sup>2</sup>

We there read about the Jaina teacher, Kālaka, whose sister was abducted by

<sup>1</sup> ν. 1088: Ίνδον πάρ ποταμόν νότιοι Σκύθαι ένναίουσι.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Ed. by H. Jacobi, ZDMG, 34, 1880, pp. 247 ff.

Gardabhilla, king of Ujjayinī. He then proceeded to the kūla called Sagakūla,¹ the kūla of the Sakas. There the feudatories (sāmanta) were called sāhi and their overlord (sāmantāhivai) sāhānu sāhi, i. e. King of Kings. Kālaka stayed with one of the sāhis, and as this chief together with ninety-five other sāhis fell into disgrace with the 'King of Kings', Kālaka induced them to accompany him to Hindukadeśa (Hindugadesa). They crossed the Indus (uttariūna Sindhum), embarked in ships (samaruhiuna jaṇavattesu), proceeded to Kāṭhiāwār (samāgaya Suraṭṭhavisae) and divided that country among themselves. When the autumn came, the āchārya led them on to Ujjayinī, where Gardabhilla was made a prisoner. A sāhi was established as overking (rāyāhirāya), and in this way this dynasty of the Saka kings came into being (evam Sagaraūnam eso vamso samuppanno).

After some time (kālantareņa keņai) Vikramāditya, king of Mālava, ousted this Saka dynasty (uppādittā Sagāņa tam vamsam) and established his own era (payadāvio niyao samvachchharo).

But also his dynasty was uprooted (tassa vi vainsain uppādiuņa), by another Saka king (Sagarāyā), who established an era of his own when 135 years of the Vikrama era had elapsed (paṇatīse vāsasae Vikkamasainvachchharassa volīņe parivaṭṭiuṇa ṭhavio jeṇain sainvachcharo niyao).

It is then added that this incident has been narrated (eyam pāsamgiyam samakkhā-yam) in order to give information about the (origin of the) Śaka era (Sagakālajāṇaṇ-attham).

I cannot see the slightest reason for discrediting this account, as is usually done, because most scholars are a priori disinclined to believe in Indian tradition and sometimes prefer the most marvellous accounts of foreign authors to Indian lore. Almost every detail can be verified from other sources. A Saka empire in the Indus country is, as we have seen, known from classical sources. Ptolemy speaks of the extension of Saka power to Kāṭhiāwār, and the use of the imperial title 'King of Kings' among the Sakas is, as we shall see later on, attested by coins. And the Purāṇas 2 speak of Śaka kings as the successors of the Gardabhilla dynasty.

I have therefore no hesitation in drawing the inference that a Saka empire, with emperors using the title 'King of Kings' (sāhāņu sāhi), existed in the Indus country some time before the establishment of the Vikrama era. Its centre of gravity seems to have been on the western shore of the Indus, and it is of interest that the recent excavations at Mohenjo Daro in the Lārkāna district have brought to light traces of the successors of the Sakas, the Kushāṇas. We are further told that these ancient Sakas made themselves masters of Kāṭhiāwār and, for some time, of Ujjayinī; that their overthrow in the latter place by Vikramāditya was the occasion for the establishment of the Vikrama era; and that 135 years later another Saka established the well-known Saka era. We are not told that the sāhi who ousted Gardabhilla introduced an era of his own, and we are left to guess whether his dynasty brought an era from Sagakūla, which era must then have been established some time before the expedition to Ujjayinī and probably by the first sāhāņu sāhi, or stuck to the old reckoning of Mālava. The former alternative seems to be the most probable one, since Vikramāditya thought it advisable to introduce an era of his own. We have no certain traces of Indian secular eras before Vikramāditya,

We do not know whether  $k\bar{u}la$  is the well-known  $k\bar{u}la$ , bank, shore, or a misunderstood foreign word.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Pargiter, The Purāņa Text of the Dynasties of the Kali Age, Oxford University Press, 1913, pp. 45 ff.

and it seems a priori likely that he established an era of his own in imitation of the Saka conquerors whom he replaced.

About the duration of this Saka dynasty in Ujjayinī some information seems to be deducible from some memorial verses preserved in Jaina literature, which I think contain a genuine tradition.¹ They give a short account of the kings and dynasties of Mālava intervening between Mahāvīra's Nirvāṇa and the beginning of the Vikrama era, and are to the following effect: 'In the night when the Arhat, the Tīrthamkara Mahāvīra died, in that night the Avanti lord Pālaka was anointed. Sixty (are the years) of king Pālaka and one hundred and fifty-five (those) of the Nandas, one hundred and eight (those) of the Mauryas, thirty (those) of Pushyamitra. Balamitra and Bhānumitra (ruled) sixty years, Nahavahana forty, and the reign of Gardabhilla (lasted) thirteen years, that of the Saka four.' <sup>8</sup>

In the present connexion we are only concerned with the last pada, according to which the Saka rule in Ujjayinī lasted four years, i. e. from 60 or 61 B.C., and I see no reason for doubting this statement.

We must accordingly assume that the Saka dominion in the Indus country had been established some time before that date, how long we cannot say. Some indications can, however, be deduced from the use of the imperial title 'King of Kings' used by the Sakas on the Indus.

The title King of Kings. The title is, as is well known, deducible from the Achaemenian χελάγατλίγα χελάγαthiγάπαm, and is not used by ancient Indian rulers such as Aśoka and Khāravela. The
Greeks did not employ it but used designations such as βασιλεύς, 'king' (Diodotus,
Euthydemus, Demetrius, Pantaleon, Agathocles, Eucratides); βασιλεύς μέγας, 'great
king' (Eucratides); maharaja mahata, 'great great-king' (Hermaeus); βασιλεύς σωτήρ,
maharaja tratara, 'king saviour', 'great-king saviour' (Diodotus, Diomedes, Apollodotus,
Strato, Menander, Dionysius, Apollophanes, Zoilus, Nicias, Hippostratus, Hermaeus);
βασιλεύς δίκαιος, maharaja dhramika, 'righteous king' (Agathocles, Heliocles, Menander,
Zoilus, Theophilus); βασιλεύς νικηφόρος, οτ, νικάτωρ, maharaja jayadhara, 'victorious king'
(Antialcides, Epander, Antimachus, Amyntas); βασιλεύς ἀνίκητος, 'unconquered king'
(Demetrius, Lysias, Philoxenus, Artemidorus); βασιλεύς ἐπιφανής, 'illustrious king' (Plato,
Strato); βασιλεύς εὐεργέτης, maharaja kalanakrama, 'beneficent king' (Telephus), &c.

Such titles may be combined. Thus we find βασιλεθε μέγαε σωτήρ, 'great king saviour' (Apollodotus and Hippostratus, of whom the latter also uses the Indian translation maharaja tratara mahata jayata, 'great-king, saviour, great, victorious'); βασιλεθε σωτήρ δίκαιος, maharaja tratara dhramika, 'righteous king saviour' (Strato); βασιλεθε δίκαιος νικηφόρος, maharaja dhramika tratara (Peucelaus); βασιλεθε δίκαιος νικηφόρος, maharaja dhramika jayadhara, 'righteous victorious king' (Archebius); βασιλεθε έπιφανής σωτήρ, maharaja prachaksha tratara, 'illustrious king saviour' (Strato, Polyxenus). If we add βασιλεθε θεθες, 'divine king' (Antimachus); βασίλισσα θεθτροπος, 'god-like queen' (Agathocleia); βασιλεθε μέγας σωτήρ καὶ φιλοπάτωρ, 'great king saviour and father-loving' (Appolodotus) and βασιλεθε στήρ συ, 'king saviour su' (Hermaeus), we have exhausted the titulature used by Greek rulers in India, and it is only in some of the Kharoshṭhī

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. my remarks Acta Orientalia, i, pp. 33 ff.

<sup>&#</sup>x27; jam rayanim kālagao arihā tiţṭhamkaro Mahāvīr[o] tam rayanim Avantivaī ahisitto Pālago rāyā.
Saṭṭhī Pālagaranno paṇavaṇṇasayam tu hoī Nandāṇa aṭṭhasayam Muriyāṇam tīsam cia Pūsamittassa.
Balamitta-Bhāṇumittā saṭṭhī varisāṇi chatta Nahavahaṇe taha Gaddabhillarajjam terasa varisā Sagassa chaü.'

legends corresponding to  $\beta a \sigma \iota \lambda \epsilon \omega s$   $\sigma \tau \eta \rho \sigma s$   $\sigma \nu$  ' $E \rho \mu \alpha i \sigma \nu$  that we find the imperial title rajaraja, and these coins are certainly later than the period referred to in the Jaina book.<sup>1</sup>

If we abstract from the Kālakāchāryakathānaka, the first time the title 'King of Kings' is met with on Indian soil is in the coin-legends of a ruler who is variously called Moga. Maues, Moa, or Moga, and who was certainly a Saka.<sup>2</sup>

The form Moga occurs, coupled with the title maharaya, in a copper-plate inscription from Taxila, dated in the year 78 of an era which we shall have to deal with below. The forms Maues and Moa are taken from a series of coins, some with the Greek legend βασιλέως ΜΑΥΟΥ, others with the Greek legend βασιλέως βασιλέως μεγάλου ΜΑΥΟΥ on the obverse and rajatirajasa mahatasa Moasa on the reverse.

Dr. Fleet 3 wanted to separate the great king Moga of the copper-plate from Maues, Moa, chiefly because the coins have been assigned to a very early period, not later than 120 B.C., while the copper-plate was, in his opinion, dated in the Vikrama era and accordingly belonged to the first century A.D. He rightly thinks it impossible to overcome this difficulty by assuming that the copper-plate is dated not during the reign of the great king Moga, but in the year 78 of an era instituted by Moga, reminding us of the fact that when the name of a king is mentioned in connexion with the date in an early Indian record, this king is always characterized as ruling at the time when the record was issued.

There cannot be any doubt that Dr. Fleet was right in assuming that King Moga was actually ruling at the time of the copper-plate. On the other hand, it can be seriously doubted whether the Moa-Maues coins are really so old as has been assumed.

Professor Rapson points out that such can hardly be the case, and thinks it extremely unlikely that Maues should be older than Mithradates II (123-88 B.C.), the first Parthian emperor to use the imperial title 'King of Kings'. And he is evidently right.

In his paper, 'The Indo-Parthian Dynasties', Mr. Vincent Smith says about the coins of Maues: 'The pieces with types directly imitated from the coinages of Demetrios and Apollodotos bear the brief legend, BASIAEOS MAYOY, and may be presumed to belong to an early period of his reign. But most of his coins give the fuller royal style, BASIAEOS BASIAEON METAAOY MAYOY, which is unquestionably a copy of the Parthian regal formula.'

If we accept this line of argument, as I think we must do, we must turn to Parthian Parthia.

history in order to find out the earliest possible date for Maues.

The Parthian empire was founded about the middle of the third century B.C. by Arsaces, whose successors are known as the Arsacidae, wherefore the old Chinese name for Parthia was An-si (old ân-siək), which form can be deduced from an old arsak.

The Parthian ruler who was on the throne when Scythian tribes were making an end to the Greek dominion in Bactria was Mithradates I (ca. 171-138 B.C.), who succeeded in establishing a powerful empire. We learn from Strabo 6 that the Parthians 'grew so powerful, continually encroaching upon the neighbouring territory by reason of their

I abstract from the Eucratides coin Gardner, Pl. xxx, 12, with the legend maharajasa rajatirajasa Evukrati[dasa], which seems to be quite unique.

3 Cf. Thomas IRAS 1006, p. 208.

3 IRAS, 1914, pp. 994 ff. and other papers.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Thomas, JRAS, 1906, p. 208.

<sup>3</sup> JKAS, 1914, pp. 994 ft. and other pales.

<sup>4</sup> The Cambridge History of India, i, p. 570.

<sup>5</sup> ZDMG, 60, 1906, p. 54.

xi. 9, 2: ἔπειθ' οὕτως ἴσχυσαν ἀφαιρούμενοι τὴν πλησίον ἀεὶ διὰ τὰς ἐν τοῖς πολέμοις κατορθώσεις, ὥστε τελευτῶντες ἀπάσης τῆς ἐντὸς Εὐφράτου κύριοι κατέστησαν. ᾿Αφείλοντο δὲ καὶ τῆς Βακτριανῆς μέρος βιασάμενοι τοὺς Σκύθας καὶ ἔτι πρότερον τοὺς περὶ Εὐκρατίδαν

successes in war, that finally they established themselves as masters of all within the Euphrates. They further appropriated a portion of Bactria by bringing force to bear upon the Scythians and even before that upon those about Eucratides'.

Mithradates I and India.

It has been supposed that Mithradates I extended the Parthian empire beyond the Indus into the Panjāb, and that this event was commemorated through the introduction of the imperial title 'King of Kings' in India. For the historian Orosius states that he conquered all the peoples between the Hydaspes and the Indus. Professor Rapson is, however, probably right in thinking ' that ' to an author writing from the standpoint of Parthia the expression "between the Hydaspes and the Indus" must surely connote an extension from west to east—from a Persian river to the great Indus which has so often in history been the boundary between Irān and India. Hydaspes is a Persian name, and the river mentioned in this passage is no doubt the Medus Hydaspes of Virgil (Georgics, iv. 211). The theory of a conquest of N.-W. India by Mithradates I would therefore seem to be founded on a misunderstanding of the historian's statement.'

Mithradates' successors. Mithradates' successors were less powerful. Phraates II (138-128 B.c.) had to call in Scythian auxiliaries in his wars against Syria, and, when he tried to withhold their wages, they turned against him, and he was killed in battle.<sup>2</sup>

The next king, Artabanus I (128-123 B.C.), was no more successful. The Scythians are stated to have returned to their own country after having devastated Parthia, but Artabanus was afterwards killed in battle against the Tochari.

It may be surmised, though it cannot be proved, that it was during the reign of these two kings that Sakas settled in Seistān, and this surmise finds some support in the fact that the Arachoti, Drangae, and Arei are mentioned in the passage from Justin quoted above as instrumental in weakening the Greek dominion.

Mithradates II. The fortunes of Parthia were, however, reasserted by Artabanus' son and successor, Mithradates II, the Great (123-88 B.C.). He seems to have been the first Parthian ruler to assume the imperial title 'King of Kings',4 and 'it was in his reign that the struggle between the kings of Parthia and their Scythian subjects in eastern Irān was brought to a close and the suzerainty of Parthia over the ruling powers of Seistān and Kandahār confirmed'.

'In eastern Irān the "King of Kings" and the prince of his family who was associated with him in the government issued coins bearing the names of both—the former in Greek on the obverse, and the latter in Kharoshṭhī on the reverse. Greek was the ordinary language of coins throughout the Parthian empire: it was not characteristic of any particular province. Kharoshṭhī, on the other hand, was, in eastern Irān, restricted to Arachosia (Kandahār). We may reasonably infer therefore from the coin-legends that the viceroy governed this province in the upper valley of the Helmand and its tributaries. The other province, Drangiāna (Seistān), was most probably under the direct rule of the suzerain.'

Title 'King of Kings' after Mithradates II.

The paramount position acquired by Mithradates II did not outlast his reign. Professor Rapson draws attention to the fact that the title 'King of Kings' was not used in Parthia 'during the interval from 88 to 57 B.C. which separates the reigns of Mithradates II and III; and in the meantime it was assumed not only by the Saka king Maues in the East, but also, in the years 77-73, by Tigranes, king of Armenia, the great rival of Parthia in the West'.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> l. c., p. 568. 
<sup>2</sup> Justin, XIII, 1, 2 ff. 
<sup>8</sup> p. xxii.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Cf. Warwick Wroth, Catalogue of the Coins of Parthia, London, 1903, p. xxv<sup>1</sup>; Rapson, l.c., pp. 567 ff.

This line of argument seems to be unobjectionable. Maues cannot be placed earlier than 88 B.C. For there is no reason for assuming that he, or his predecessors, revived an ancient title which Iranian tradition had long connected with supreme imperial power. There is every probability that the imperial title was assumed in imitation of rulers with whom the Sakas had been connected, and then there can hardly be the question of anybody else than Mithradates II.

We must therefore accept the explanation given by Professor Rapson that 'the invasion of India must be ascribed not to the Parthian emperors, but to their former feudatories in eastern Irān; not to the reign of Mithradates I, but to a period after the reign of Mithradates II, when the power of Parthia had declined and kingdoms once subordinate had become independent.'

It also seems to me that we must necessarily follow Professor Rapson in assuming Route of that the Saka invasion did not start from the Kābul valley. In the first place, if the Saka invasion did not start from the Kābul valley. In the first place, if the Saka invasion. Sakas came through the Kābul valley, all traces of their invasion must be supposed to have disappeared from that region; for, among the many thousands of coins which were collected on its sites at the time when the country was still open to archaeological investigation, the coins of the earliest Śaka kings are conspicuous by their absence; and, secondly, it is certain that the Kābul valley remained in the possession of the Yavana princes of the house of Eucratides after the Yavana dominions in N.-W. India on the eastern side of the Khyber Pass, that is to say, in Peshāwar and Rāwalpiṇdī, had been conquered by the Śakas. Ingress from Bactria was therefore barred at this period.

'The alternative suggestion that the Sakas may have come into India from their northern home in the country of the Jaxartes through Kashmīr involves a physical impossibility. The geographical difficulties of this region are such that an invasion from this direction of tribal hordes or armies sufficiently powerful to overwhelm the Yavana kingdoms and to conquer the whole of the N.-W. Frontier Province and the Punjab is inconceivable.

'Any direct invasion from the north seems, in fact, to be out of the question. It is therefore far more probable, nay almost certain, that the Sakas reached India indirectly, and that, like the Pahlavas, they came through Ariāna (W. and S. Afghānistān and Baluchistān) by the great highway, associated in modern times with the Bolān Pass, which led from the Parthian provinces of Drangiāna (Seistān) and Arachosia (Kandahār) over the Brāhūi mountains into the country of the lower Indus (Sind).'

It will be seen that this theory is in thorough accord with the Jaina tradition about a Saka empire on the Indus in the first half of the first century B.C., and we may now state that this empire had been established some time between 88 and 60 B.C.

In this connexion it is also of interest to note that the name Sakastana, which is at the base of the modern Seistān, is used by the Indian Sakas in the Mathurā Lion Capital inscriptions which will be mentioned below. For we there find, towards the end, the words: sarvasa sak(r)aslanasa puyae, in honour of the whole Saka country, i.e. the Indian Sakas brought to India the name which they had formerly applied to their home in Seistān.

In such circumstances it is not necessary to assume that Maues, whose coins have only been found in the Panjāb, was the first Saka conqueror in India. It is more probable that he had predecessors in the Indus country, and, if we can trust the Kāla-kāchāryakathānaka, these predecessors used the imperial title 'King of Kings'. In other words, Maues was not the first to introduce the title in India, and his coin-legends may

<sup>1</sup> l. c., pp. 563 ff.

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be interpreted as indicating that he did not do so from the very beginning of his reign.

Date of Saka inva-

It seems to me that the various indications which can be gathered from Parthian history and from Indian tradition can only be reconciled by assuming that a Saka empire was established in the Indus country some time after the demise of Mithradates II in 88 B.C., that this empire was extended to Kāthiāwār and Mālava about 60 B.C., and that it was subsequently materially weakened by Vikramāditya. It is natural to infer that its centre of gravity then became the Panjab, and that Maues' date is subsequent to the introduction of the Vikrama era.

But then it becomes probable that the era used in the copper-plate inscription of the year 78, which mentions the maharaya Moga, was instituted in commemoration of the foundation of a Saka empire after the demise of Mithradates II, so that the year 78 could not fall earlier than about 10 B.C., and it is, in this connexion, of interest that Sir John Marshall has, from archaeological reasons, approximately dated the record in 17 B.C.1

Other Saka

The copper-plate of the year 78 is not the only inscription dated in this era, and not inscriptions. the oldest one. At Maira in the Salt Range, about 100 miles to the south of Taxila, a Kharoshthī inscription has been found in an ancient well, which is, it is true, too defaced to be utilized with confidence, but which seems to agree with the Taxila plate in palaeography. It seems to be dated in the year 58, and it is possible that it contains the word Moasa, i.e. the name of the same ruler who is mentioned in the Taxila plate.

> Then there is an inscription from Fatehjang, ten miles south of Taxila, which is dated in the year 68, but which does not contain any royal name, and, further, we have three old inscriptions from the Hazāra district. One of them, which has been found at Mansehra, is certainly dated in the year 68, while the others, which are still in situ at Shahdaur in the Agror valley, cannot be dated with certainty. One of them perhaps belongs to the year 60 and mentions a rajan Damijada, whose name is followed by a word which seems to begin with saka, i. e. he or the era used by him seem to be referred to the Sakas. We may assume that Damijada was a local ruler in Hazāra under the suzerainty of the 'King of Kings'.

> The other Shahdaur inscription is also dated, but the date cannot be made out. It seems to contain the name Aya and may be somewhat later than the Taxila plate.

Extent of in the Panjāb.

From these records we can draw the inference that the Saka empire in Maues' Saka empire time comprised the country about Taxila, including the Hazāra district in the north, and probably extending southwards along the Indus. Old Kharoshthī inscriptions have also been found at Pāṭhyār and Kanhiāra in Kāngra, at Karnāl and at Mathurā, and it is possible that Saka suzerainty was acknowledged in these districts as well, but it is hardly possible to draw the eastern frontier-line of the empire.

We have seen that subordinate rulers, such as Damijada, held sway in the provinces kshatrapas. of the empire, and such local governors are usually styled kshatrapas. We know the names of several such chiefs.

> The Taxila copper-plate of the year 78 mentions Liaka Kusuluka, who is characterized as a kshaharata and as kshatrapa of Chukhsa, i. e. probably the present Chachh, immediately west of Taxila.

Kshaharāta.

The designation kshaharāta is well known from a different part of India.

used about some members of another Saka dynasty, the so-called Western Kshatrapas of Kāṭhiāwār and Mālava. In a Nāsik inscription of the 19th year of Siri Pulumāyi¹ a Khakharātavasa, i. e. evidently Kshaharātavasisa, is mentioned, and it is perhaps most probable that kshaharāta was the name of a family or clan.²

The term kusuluka is also known from other sources. Liaka Kusuluka is evidently Kusuluka. the same person who has issued coins with the legend AIAKO KOZOYAO. These coins are imitations of those of Eucratides, but we are no more justified to draw chronological conclusions from this fact than in the case of Maues.

The Greek spelling shows that the actual sound was kuzula, and this kuzula is possibly the name of a family, as suggested by Professor Lüders, in which case the Kuzulas must have belonged to the larger group of the Kshaharatas.

We shall see later on that the same designation κοζουλο is used about the oldest of the Kushāṇas, who came to India not via the Indus country, but from the north-west. It is therefore probable that Liaka was descended from the ancient Saka rulers of Ki-pin, and that his family had not come to India from Seistān.

There is another detail which seems to point in the same direction. Liaka had a Jativa. son, Patika, who seems to be spoken of in the copper-plate as a jativa, and this jativa is most probably the same title which is used by the early Kushāṇa ruler designated Koζouλo in the forms ζaoos, yavuga. We learn from Chinese sources that this title was used in a series of principalities extending from Wakhān and towards Kābul, i. e. in, and in the neighbourhood of, Ki-pin.

We shall see below that there is some reason for assuming that also Maues belonged to the old Sakas of the north-west.

The jativa Patika is evidently the same person who occurs as the mahakshatrava Patika. Kusulua Patika in the most important record which we possess of the Sakas in India, the inscriptions engraved on a sandstone capital from Mathurā, the so-called Lion Capital. Dr. Fleet held this Patika to be another person, but the use of the same designation Kusulua, by the mahākshatrapa Patika and by the father of the jativa Patika is a priori in favour of identifying them, and we should only be justified in separating them if it could be shown that they cannot be identified, which is by no means the case.

The Lion Capital contains the names of several Saka chiefs who are not known from other sources, such as the kshatrapa Meyaki. Miyika, the kshatrapa Khardaa, Takshila Kronina, and perhaps Khalasamusa. And it mentions the local dynasty of Mathurā and also a yuvarāja.

The local Saka ruler of Mathurā was the mahākshatrapa Rajula. He is certainly Rajula. identical with the mahākshatrapa Rājūvula of the Brāhmī inscription on the Mora stoneslab in the Mathurā Museum, and with the ruler whose coins are imitated from those of Strato II and bear the Greek legend BACIΛΕωC CωTHPOC PAIY BACIΛΕΙ, where Paţυβασιλει may be a semi-Greek rendering of Rājūvula, on the obverse, and the Kharoshṭhī text apratihatachakrasa kshatrapasa Rajuvulasa on the reverse. Other coins bear the Brāhmī legend mahākhatapasa Rajuvulasa.

<sup>1</sup> Ep. Ind., viii, p. 60.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> It is, however, possible that *kshaharāta* stands for *kshahararāta*, where *kshahara* may be a dialect form of *kshatra*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Cunningham, Numismatic Chronicle, 3rd series, ix, 1889, p. 308, Plate XIII, 9.

<sup>4</sup> SBAW, 1922, p. 261.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> JRAS, 1913, p. 1001.

<sup>6</sup> A coin bearing the name Mevaku has been traced by Professor Rapson, JRAS, 1894, p. 548.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Lüders, List, no. 14.

<sup>8</sup> Cf. Andreas in Lüders, SBAW, 1913, pp. 424 ff.

Such features do not point to a high age, and, according to Sir John Marshall,<sup>1</sup> the stratification of finds at Taxila seems to show that this ruler belongs to the beginning of the Christian era.

Śodāsa.

This dating, which is in thorough agreement with the results arrived at above, is also supported by other evidence. The inscription on the capital contains the name of Rajula's son, the kshatrapa Śudasa, and this Śudasa is certainly identical with a chief whose coins bear the Brāhmī legend mahākhatapasa putasa khatapasa Śodāsasa and who is mentioned in two Brāhmī inscriptions,² one, from the Jail Mound, mentioning the treasurer (gamjavara) of the svāmin mahākshatrapa Śomdāsa, the other, from Kankālī Tīlā, being dated in the year 72 and during the reign of the svāmin mahākshatrapa Śodāsa. The date must evidently be referred to the Vikrama era and consequently corresponds to A. D. 15, and this dating is supported by the style of the carving on the stone, which Sir John Marshall assigns to the beginning of the Christian era.

Kshatrapa and mahākshatrapa. It will be seen that we have two different titles, kshatrapa and mahākshatrapa, the latter being evidently the higher one, and we get the impression that a kshatrapa might, in the ordinary course of events, advance to the higher position after the demise of his predecessor. Such was certainly the case in the later Saka dynasty of the Western Kshatrapas, where kshatrapas as well as mahākshatrapas seem to have acknowledged the suzerainty of a 'King of Kings', as was certainly the case with the mahākshatrapa Kharapallāna, who is mentioned in a Brāhmī inscription of the third year of the Kushāṇa emperor Kanishka and in another undated record from Sārnāth.

We have not, however, any indication to show that such was the state of things from the very beginning of the Saka empire. The title mahākshatrapa is met with for the first time on the Mathura Lion Capital and the coins of Rajula. The kshatrapas Hagāna and Hagāmasha, who may have been his predecessors, only use the inferior title, and the same is the case with Liaka Kusuluka. It is therefore possible that the higher title was not introduced long before the time of the Lion Capital. In other words, we are perfectly justified in drawing the inference that a certain period, say five to ten years, must have intervened between the date of the Lion Capital, when Sodasa was kshatrapa as subordinate to his father, the mahākshatrapa, and A.D. 15, when he had succeeded his father in the higher position as mahākshatrapa. But we have no a priori right to assert that a comparatively longer interval must separate the Lion Capital from the Taxila copper-plate of the year 78, to make it possible for Liaka Kusuluka to rise from kshatrapa to mahākshatrapa, and for his son, Patika, to become first kshatrapa and then mahākshatrapa. It is just as probable, or even more probable, that at the time of the copper-plate there were no mahākshatrapas at all, but only kshatrapas, the lower position being that of the jaiva. And, as a matter of fact, there are some indications to show that the introduction of the title mahākshatrapa coincided with the abolition of the imperial title 'King of Kings', that at, or shortly before, the date of the Lion Capital the united Saka empire was replaced by a federation of Saka chiefs, the most important of whom assumed the title mahākshatrapa.

Decrease of Saka power.

The events narrated in the Kālakāchāryakathānaka seem to bear witness to a considerable decrease of the Saka power in consequence of Vikramāditya's success. From

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASIAR, 1914-15, p. 27.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Lüders, List, nos. 59 and 82.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Lüders, *Ep. Ind.*, ix, pp. 243 ff. Professor Rapson, *The Cambridge History of India*, i, p. 575, reads the year as 42.

The Cambridge History of India, i, p. 633.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Cf. Rapson, WK, p. c f.

<sup>6</sup> Lüders, List, nos. 925, 926.

the use of Brāhmī in coin legends and inscriptions and of the Vikrama era by the kshatrapas of Mathurā we may infer that the national reassertion which took place in Mālava also made itself felt in Mathurā. And danger was also threatening from another direction.

As we shall see later on, the Parthian empire, which suffered great losses after the demise of Mithradates II, soon began to recover, and one year before the date of the Taxila copper-plate an attempt was made to replace the reckoning of the Sakas by a new, Parthian, era. And some few years later we find Parthian rulers established in the Panjāb.

The Sakas seem to have been unable to resist the increasing pressure, and it may be surmised that an attempt was made to find recompensation in the east, by tightening the grip the Sakas held on Mathurā. The Lion Capital makes mention of military camps, and it is possible that it contains a reference to funeral solemnities after the death of King Moga. If the reading and interpretation of the difficult passage which seems to contain Moga's name is accepted, it seems necessary to infer that the Lion Capital was put up on the occasion of a military expedition, during which the 'King of Kings' was killed or died.

The inscriptions on the Lion Capital twice mention a yuvarāja, i. e. heir-apparent, Yuvarāja Kharaosta, who seems to have been a person of some consequence, because the principal Kharaosta. donor mentioned in the record, the chief queen of the mahākshatrapa Rajula, takes care to define her relationship to him, and because it is expressly mentioned that he is giving his assent to the donations.

There can hardly be any doubt about the identity of this Kharaosta with the kshatrapa Kharahostes, whose coin legends have been dealt with by Professors Rapson 1 and Lüders.\* The Greek legend is XAPAHOETEI EATPAPEI APTA YDY, and the Kharoshthī Kshatrapasa pra Kharaostasa Arțasa (or once Orțasa) putrasa. The meaning of the syllable pra, which Lüders explained as an abbreviation of pratimā but which may also be a reflex of prachakshasa, which is used in Strato's coin legends, does not interest us in the present connexion. The importance of the coin legends rests with the fact that they show that Kharaosta was not the son of Rajula, as has sometimes been assumed, but of Arta. The inscription on the Lion Capital has usually been interpreted to mean that he was the son of Rajula's chief queen, who must accordingly formerly have married Arța. This very queen mentions her mother and her father's mother as associated in the donation registered, in addition to Kharaosta, who further has at his side a younger prince (kumara) Khalamasa and a youngest brother (kanitha) Maja, and cannot have been quite young at the time of the record, being besides, as already indicated, a person of consequence. If he were about thirty years old, his mother could hardly be much less than fifty, and her mother again towards seventy, and even she had a mother-in-law alive. Moreover the general construction of the inscription seems to show that Rajula's queen was the daughter and not the mother of the yuvaraja Kharaosta. That such was the case seems also to follow from the fact that she as well as he are characterized as Kamuïa, for such designations are inherited from the father and not from the mother.

It will be seen that Kharaosta cannot be characterized as yuvarāja in his quality as the heir apparent of the mahākshatrapa Rajula. The latter's son and co-regent, who in due course succeeded him, was the kshatrapa Śodāsa. The title yuvarāja must bear reference to something different from the position as kshatrapa or mahākshatrapa, and so far as I can see, there can only be the question of the imperial throne. In other words, Kharaosta was the legal heir of Moga. And that was apparently the reason

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JRAS, 1905, pp. 792 ff.

why Rajula had married his daughter and made her his chief queen: he wanted to strengthen his position among the Saka leaders.

At the time of the Lion Capital the state of things was apparently as follows: Maues, the King of Kings, was no more, and the yuvarāja, Kharaosta, had not been installed as his successor. One of the Saka chiefs had married Kharaosta's daughter, and, if Kharaosta was to die without male issue, he might reasonably hope that the imperial title would, in due course, pass over to his family. It is conceivable that the other chiefs were little pleased at this prospect. And, at all events, there is nothing to show that the title 'King of Kings' was continued with the Sakas after the demise of Maues. Instead of installing the yuvarāja as 'King of Kings', the Saka chiefs seem to have established a federation, with the two most important ones, Patika and Rajula, as mahākshatrapas, and subordinate kshatrapas in other provinces. Patika probably held sway in the old province of his father, in Chukhsa, which included Taxila, and it seems probable that Mevaki Miyika, whose name is associated with his in the inscription, was his co-regent and perhaps his son, just as Rajula's son, Śodasa, was associated with his father as kshatrapa in the Mathurā country. In Taxila the Sakas were soon afterwards replaced by Parthian rulers. In Mathurā Śodasa was still mahākshatrapa in the year A.D. 15.

I therefore think that the title mahākshatrapa was not introduced before the death of Maues, and that its introduction bears witness to the first stages of a dismemberment of the Saka empire in the Panjāb, following about half a century after the defeat of the Sakas in Mālava at the hand of Vikramāditya.

Kharaosta

We still have to consider the question about Kharaosta's claim to the position as and Maues. 'King of Kings'. He was not the son of Maues, but of another person, Arta or Orta, who is not known from other sources. Now we know from the history of the Western Kshatrapas that the succession among the Sakas sometimes passed from the ruling prince to his brother.1 It is accordingly possible that Arta was a brother of Maues and was destined to succeed him, but died before him, wherefore the right of succession was transferred to his son Kharaosta. But then we may infer that Maues was, like Kharaosta, a Kamuïa. And if we bear in mind that mb becomes m, i.e. mm, in the dialect of the Kharoshthī 1)hammapada, and that u is used for the common o in Sudasa in the Lion Capital inscriptions, Kamuïa can very well represent a Skr. kāmbojaka, i. e. Kharaosta and Maues would belong to the north-western Sakas of Ki-pin and not to the branch which came to India from Seistan.

History of the Saka empire.

The history of the first Saka empire in India can accordingly be reconstructed as follows: Shortly after the death of Mithradates II in 88 B.C. the Sakas of Seistān made themselves independent of Parthia and started on a career of conquest, which took them to the Indus country. One of these events was commemorated through the establishment of a Saka era beginning, as I shall try to show below, about 84 B.C. Later on, about 60 B.C., the Sakas had extended their dominion to what the Kālakāchāryakathānaka calls the Hindukadeśa, i. e. the lower Indus country, and thence to Kāṭhiāwār and Mālava, where they probably introduced their national era. In 57/56 B.C. they were here ousted by Vikramāditya, who celebrated his victory by establishing an era of his own, which we, about seventy years later, find used in Mathura. The centre of gravity in the Saka empire was then transferred to the Panjab and further to the east, and we find a Saka chief from the north-west, Maues, as bearer of the imperial title. He continued the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Bühler, JRAS, 1894, p. 532; Bhandarkar, A Peep into the Early History of India, Bombay, 1900, pp. 23 f.

use of the Saka era, which we find employed as far north as Hazāra. But soon the Parthians began to reassert themselves in the west, and the Sakas sought recompense in the east in an expedition towards Mathurā, their second stronghold in the north. During this expedition Maues died, and after him there was no more a Saka 'King of Kings', but only kshatrapas and mahākshatrapas. The Kālakāchāryakathānaka speaks of a Saka reconquest, 135 years after Vikramāditya, and we shall have to occupy ourselves with this reconquest later on. But for the time being the unity and strength of the Saka empire had been broken.

With regard to the nationality of these old Sakas we have very little evidence, but Nationality such as there is, is to the effect that they were Iranians, speaking a language related to of the old that of the Kushāṇas and the ancient Iranian inhabitants of the southern oases of Chinese Turkestan.

I have already mentioned the name saka and the designations jaüva and kusuluka, and if kamuïa corresponds to Skr. kāmbojaka, it is worth while remembering that we know from Yāska (Naig. ii. 2) and the Mahābhāshya¹ that the Kambojas said śavati for 'he goes', and this base is the same as in the modern Persian shudan.

The title sāhāņu sāhi occurring in the Kālakāchāryakathānaka is Prākritized and the shāhānu shāhi of the Allahābād praśasti is certainly a more correct rendering of the Saka title. The word shāhi is clearly Iranian, and the terminations i of the nominative singular and ānu of the genitive plural are the same as in Khotanī Saka, where, however, the corresponding word is shau and not shāhi.

Also many of the names of individual Sakas are clearly Iranian, as shown by Professors Thomas and Lüders. And the name which they use about their country in the Lion Capital inscriptions, viz. Sak(r)astana, is just as unmistakably Iranian.

We have seen that the imperial Sakas cannot be traced after Maues, and I have Parthians already indicated that I look on this development as the result of a Parthian expansion replace Sakas. towards the Panjāb. This is not in accordance with the view held by other scholars, who look on the Saka and Parthian rulers of India as closely connected with each other. Vincent Smith has proposed to designate all those rulers as Parthians, and Professor Rapson holds a similar opinion.

After having explained how the struggle between the kings of Parthia and the Scythians was brought to an end by Mithradates II, who secured the suzerainty over the old Saka settlements in Seistān and Kandahār, the latter scholar goes on to say: 5 'In these subordinate governments Parthians (Pahlavas) and Scythians (Śakas) were so closely associated that it is not always possible to distinguish between them: the same family includes both Parthian and Scythian names. It is therefore little more than a convenient nomenclature which labels the princes of the family of Maues, who invaded the lower Indus valley, as Śakas, and those of Vonones, who ruled over Drangiāna (Seistān) and Arachosia (Kandahār), as Pahlavas... In fact, all through the period of Śaka and Pahlava rule the countries to the west and east of the Indus were governed by members of the same royal house. There were normally three contemporary rulers of royal rank—a King of Kings associated with some junior member of his family in Irān, and a King of Kings in India, and the subordinate ruler in Irān usually became in due course King of Kings in India.'

So far as I can see, there is no clear evidence in support of this view, and it is not

<sup>1.</sup> Ed. Kielhorn, i, 925.

<sup>8</sup> SBAW, 1913, pp. 406 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> l. c., p. 568.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JRAS, 1906, pp. 204 ff.

<sup>4</sup> ZDMG, 60, 1906, pp. 49 ff.

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a priori very likely that the Sakas and the Parthians should have dropped their old quarrels after the Sakas had made themselves independent of Parthia, as shown by their assumption of the imperial title, or after the Parthians had succeeded in re-establishing their suzerainty in the east. It is much more probable that the old contrast remained.

Parthia dates II.

We do not know much about the history of Parthia after Mithradates II.1 Tigranes after Mithra- of Armenia is known to have annexed parts of the Parthian empire about the time when the Sakas asserted their independence. About the king Sinatruces, who seems to have been ruling between 77 and 70 B. C., we learn from Lucian (Macrob. 15) that he had been staying with the Sakaraukai before he was summoned back to Parthia.

Revival of imperial title.

His son Phraates III (70-57 B.C.) was able to some extent to retrieve the fortunes of Parthia, and under his sons, Mithradates III (57-54 B.C.) and Orodes I (57-37 B.C.), the imperial title King of Kings again makes its appearance on Parthian coins.

Eastern provinces of Parthia about the times of Christ.

This increase of Arsacid power was evidently also felt in Seistan, and about the beginning of the Christian era we find that the Parthian empire comprised the whole country from Herat and eastwards, including Seistan, but nothing to the east of Vincent Smith gives the following eastern provinces after Isidor of Charax: (1) Arīa, with its capital 'Alexandria among the Arīans', the modern Herat; (2) the country of the Anauoi, being a segment of Aria, with its chief town Phra, the modern Farrah; (3) Zarangiana or Drangiana, lying farther south, E. long. 60°, N. lat. 31°-32°, to the east of the Hamun or Zareh Lake; (4) Sakastana, to the south-east of the last, including Sigal, the Saka capital, a province to the north of the Helmund river; and, lastly, (5) Arachosia, which the Parthians called White India (Ἰνδική λευκή), with its capital Alexandropolis, the modern Kandahār. So far extended, says Isidor, the realm of the Parthians.3

We here get information about a state of things when the Gandhara country was not subject to Parthian rule, while Seistan had been reduced. We do not know whether this expansion had already been effected during the reigns of Mithradates III and Orodes 1, but we shall see presently that a further expansion eastwards seems to have taken place about the times of Christ. This latter expansion, however, was apparently more the consequence of internal troubles within the Parthian empire, as had been the case when the Sakas set up an independent king, than of the increased power of the Parthian emperor.

Orodes I was to all appearances a powerful ruler, who was able to assert his power against the Roman legions. Crassus was defeated at Carrhae in 53 B.C., and Syria was invaded in 40 B.C. But the Romans soon got the upper hand, and the Parthians had to give up Syria.

Orodes was put to death by his son Phraates IV (38-2 B.C.), who was engaged in war against Rome till peace was restored in 36 B.C. The relations between the two powers were then comparatively friendly for some time, and we hear that Phraates sent his four sons to Rome about 10 B.C.

Internal trouble in Parthia.

We hear, on the other hand, about internal troubles in Parthia. Justin (xlii. 5) says that Phraates was banished by the Parthians on account of his cruelties, and that Tiridates was made king in his stead. Dio states (li. 18) that Phraates regained his throne in 30 B.C., when Tiridates fled for protection to Augustus, who was then in Syria. According to Justin, however, the flight of Tiridates took place when Augustus was in

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Wroth, l. c., pp. xxxi ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> ZDMG, 60, 1906, pp. 57 f.

<sup>3</sup> άχρι τούτου έστιν ή τῶν Πάρθων ἐπικράτεια.

Spain, i.e. 27-25 B.C. According to Josephus (Airt. Jud. xvi. 8. 4) there was a new rival king Mithradates in 12-9 B.C.

Phraates IV was murdered by his son, Phraataces (3 B.C.-A.D. 4), who was expelled by the Parthian nobles and fled to Roman territory in A.D. 4.

The nobles then placed Orodes II (A.D. 4-6) on the throne, but according to Josephus (xviii. 2.4) his cruelty soon led to his being assassinated. Then followed a time of internal war and bloodshed, till the Parthian nobles sent envoys to Rome and brought back Vonones I (A.D. 8-12), the eldest son of Phraates IV, as king of Parthia. Vonones, however, proved too refined and effeminate for his subjects, and a rival king appeared in the person of Artabanus III, who finally ousted Vonones and remained on the throne till A.D. 40.

The further development in Parthia proper does not concern us in this connexion. Parthians in It was during the troubled reign of Phraates IV that we seem to meet with Parthian N.-W. India. rulers in north-western India.

The oldest of them is apparently the ruler called Azes, Azilises in the Greek, and Azes, Aya, Ayilisha in the Kharoshthi coin legends. His name seems to occur, in the form Ayasa, in connexion with an illegible date, in an old inscription from Shahdaur, which has been mentioned above. The figures giving the year are, however, entirely defaced, so that the inscription cannot be utilized for chronological purposes. The stratification at Taxila, on the other hand, clearly shows that Azes, Azilises, succeeded Maues as ruler there

The coins bearing these names are found in great abundance in the Panjab, but do not appear to have been uncarthed to the west of Bīmarān near Jālalābād.

They present a great variety of types and also the legends differ. The obverse legend βασιλέως βασιλέων μεγάλου AZDY is coupled with Kharoshṭhī legends of the same meaning on the reverse; maharajasa mahatasa Ayasa, maharajasa rajatrajasa mahatasa Ayasa, maharajasa rajatrajasa mahatasa Ayasa, maharajasa mahatasa dhramikasa rajatrajasa Ayasa. In some cases, however, the reverse legend runs maharajasa rajarajasa mahatasa Ayilishasa. Similarly we have, on the obverse, the legend βασιλέως βασιλέων μεγάλου AZIΛΙΣΟΥ, and on the reverse maharajasa rajatrajasa (or, rajarajasa) mahatasa Ayilishasa, but also maharajasa rajarajasa mahatasa Ayasa.

From this state of things Mr. Vincent Smith 1 infers that there were two kings of the name of Azes, probably related as grandfather and grandson, separated by Azilises, who was probably the son of Azes I and the father of Azes II. 'The proof', he says, 'that there were two kings of Taxila named Azes is easy. Azes I struck a few coins, of which three specimens are recorded, bearing his own name in Greek on the obverse, and that of his successor, Azilises or Ayilisha, in Kharoṣṭhī, on the reverse. . . . The coins struck by Azilises as independent king in his own name alone are numerous and various. One silver coin of his with his name in Greek on the obverse exhibits the name of Azes (Aya) in Kharoṣṭhī on the reverse. . . . These coins, when considered together, prove that Azilises, before his accession to independent power, was the subordinate viceregal colleague of an Azes, and that an Azes, similarly, was subsequently the subordinate viceregal colleague of king Azilises. It is obvious that the two princes named Azes cannot be identical, and that they must be distinguished as Azes I and II. This necessary inference is fully confirmed by minute examination of the immense mass of coins bearing the name of Azes alone, which readily fall into two classes—one well

executed, with good Greek legends, the other semi-barbarous with debased, and often corrupt, Greek legends.'

On this Mr. Whitehead 1 remarks: 'Whether this evidence by itself is weighty enough to warrant so important a conclusion is a matter of opinion. I know it is generally held that Azes came before Azilises, but the coins are so far our only testimony, and the silver coins of Azilises are better executed and earlier in style than those of Azes. The best didrachms of Azes compare unfavourably with the fine silver coins of Azilises with Zeus obverse and Dioskouroi reverse, and with other rare silver types of Azilises. If Azilises preceded Azes, then, following Mr. Vincent Smith, we must have Azilises I and Azilises II, instead of Azes I and Azes II. The differences in type and style between the abundant issues of Azes can be adequately explained by reasons of locality alone, operating through a long reign.'

And, as a matter of fact, there does not seem to be room for more than one king between Moga, who was on the throne in the year 78 of an era which cannot begin earlier than 88 B.C., and Guduvhara, the successor of Azes-Azilises, who was on the throne in the year 103, there being no apparent or likely reason for considering the era of the Guduvhara inscription as different from that used in the Moga record.

It has usually been assumed that Azes belonged to the same dynasty as Maues. This opinion cannot, however, so far as I can see, be reconciled with what can be inferred from our sources. Maues was certainly a Saka, while Azes seems to have been a Parthian. That follows from a series of coins, which bring him into connexion with a ruling family whose oldest representative bears the name Vonones.

Vonones.

According to Sir A. Cunningham,<sup>3</sup> 'the coins of Vonones and his family come chiefly from the ancient Arachosia, or Kandahār and Ghazni. Some of them have also been found in Sistān, the ancient Drangiāna. A few have been obtained at Kābul, but as not a single specimen was got at Begrām by Masson, during his three years' collection, it seems almost certain that Vonones could not have ruled there. For a similar reason the family of Vonones could not have ruled for any time in the Panjāb, as their coins are very rarely found there.'

There can be no doubt that Vonones was a Parthian. The name is, as we shall see, well known from the list of Parthian kings. There are, as we have seen, indications to show that he and his family for some time held sway in Kābul, and we have every reason for assuming that it was this Parthian dynasty which overthrew the Greek dominion in Ariana.

' Some of these coins have, on the obverse, the Greek legend βασιλέων βασιλέων

<sup>1</sup> p. 02

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JRAS, 1906, p. 208.

<sup>3</sup> Numismatic Chronicle, 3rd series, x, 1890, p. 106.

<sup>4</sup> Cf. Gardner, p. xli.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Cf. Thomas, JRAS, 1906, pp. 193 f.; Rapson, l.c., p. 561.

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μεγάλου ΟΝΩΝΟΥ, and on the reverse, in Kharoshṭhī letters, either maharajabhrata dhramikasa Spalahorasa or Śpalahoraputrasa dhramiasa Śpalagadamasa; others give ΕΠΑΛΥΡΙΘΕ δικαίου ἀδελφοῦ τοῦ βασιλέως on the obverse and Śpalahoraputrasa dhramiasa Śpalagadamasa on the reverse. Finally there is a series of coins showing the name Spalirises. Some have the legends βασιλέως ἀδελφοῦ ΕΠΑΛΙΡΙΕΟΥ and maharajabhrata dhramiasa Śpaliriśasa; others βασλέων βασιλέως μεγάλου ΕΠΑΛΙΡΙΕΟΥ and maharajasa mahatakasa Śpaliriśasa, and others, finally, βασιλέως μεγάλου βΠΑΛΙΡΙΕΟΥ¹ and maharajasa mahataksa Ayasa.

One specimen of the coins of the King of Kings, the great Spalirises (p. 101, no. 2 in Gardner's catalogue) has been restruck on a copper coin of Spalyris and Spalagadama. In Professor Gardner's catalogue it is stated that the original coin was issued in the names of Vonones and Spalahora or Spalagadama, but Mr. Allan has kindly examined the coin for me and corrected this statement. Spalirises is, therefore, evidently later than Spalyris.

The name Vonones occurring in some of these legends is, as remarked above, known from the imperial dynasty of Parthia. One of the sons of Phraates IV who were sent to Rome about 10 B.C. had this name, and he was, as we have seen, later on placed on the imperial throne of Parthia. His dated coins range between A.D. 8/9 and 11/12. We also know of another emperor, Vonones II, who does not seem to have left any coins. According to Tacitus (Annals xii. 14) his reign was short and inglorious, and his accession took place in A.D. 51.

It has usually been considered impossible to identify either of these kings with the ruler mentioned on the coins under discussion, who has been described as an old king of Drangiāna and Arachosia.

According to Professor Rapson<sup>2</sup> the use of the imperial title shows that he must be later than the reign of Mithradates II. 'The most trustworthy evidence as to the date of Vonones is supplied by the coins of Spalirises, "the king's brother". If "the king", who is not named, was Vonones himself, as is usually assumed, the earlier coins of Spalirises, i. e. those struck by him before he became suzerain of eastern Irān in succession to Vonones, may perhaps afford a valuable historical indication. There are two classes of these. . . . In the first, Spalirises appears alone as "the king's brother" without any distinctly royal title. In the second, he as senior (Greek legend) is associated with Azes as junior (Kharoshṭhī legend), both of them bearing the subordinate or viceregal title, "Great King". Vonones was evidently reigning as Great King of Kings The relationship of Azes to Spalirises is not expressed in the Kharoshthī legend; and in such cases it seems to be assumed that the junior is the son of the senior: otherwise, i. e. when the junior is a brother or a nephew, the relationship is stated. We may conclude, then, that this Azes was most probably the son of Spalirises and the nephew of Vonones, and we may identify him with Azes II, who afterwards became suzerain of N.-W. India and ended his reign in A.D. 19. Vonones was at least a generation earlier; that is to say, he appears to have been contemporary with Azilises and possibly with Azes I. Until more definite evidence can be discovered, he may be supposed to have begun his reign c. 30 B.C. It seems impossible, therefore, to identify him with Vonones I of Parthia (A.D. 8-11).

'The family of Vonones is one in which the two ruling elements of eastern Iran have

Whitehead, l. c., p. 144<sup>1</sup>, draws attention to the first letter of the king's name, which, he says, seems to foreshadow the use of the new letter p(sh) on the coins of Kanishka.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> l. c., pp. 572 ff.

been blended. The name of Vonones himself is distinctly Parthian; but the names of his brothers, Spalahores and Spalirises, and of his brothers' sons, Spalagadames and Azes, are Scythian. For the sake of convenience we may call this family "Pahlava", in order to distinguish it from the better known "Parthian" dynasty in Ctesiphon, although in reality the two terms are etymologically identical.

'A characteristic feature of the coins of Vonones and his family is . . . the association of the Great King of Kings with the viceroy of Arachosia, whose relationship to the suzerain is sometimes expressed in the Kharoshthī legend of the reverse. Thus Vonones ruled conjointly with his brother, Spalahores, and with his nephew Spalagadames, the son of Spalahores. . . . If we may assume with Mr. Whitehead that the Scythian name, Spalahores (Śpalahora), appears in a Greek guise as Spalyris, this brother of Vonones and his son also ruled conjointly as viceroys over the district of Arachosia in which coins bearing the type of Euthydemus, "Heracles seated", were current. This district had formerly been under the direct government of the Great King of Kings, Azilises. . . .

'The rev. type of the coins which Spalirises issued as the successor of Vonones in the suzerainty of eastern Irān is "Zeus enthroned"...; and, as it is evidently borrowed from the coins of Hermaeus, it may perhaps be interpreted as an indication that the kingdom of Kābul had now passed from the Yavanas to the Pahlavas. If so, it would appear that this last stronghold of Yavana power had yielded to an invasion of the Pahlavas of Kandahār.'

There are some details in Professor Rapson's argument to which it seems difficult to agree.

I do not understand why the names Spalahora, Spalagadama, Spalirisa, and Azes are said to be Scythian and not Parthian. Professor Thomas 1 expresses himself with the utmost reserve and is inclined to consider the three first of them as Pan-Iranic. At the present state of our knowledge we are quite entitled to put all these rulers down as Parthians, not only Vonones, about whose Parthian nationality there has never been any doubt, but also his brothers and their sons. And there does not seem to be any reason for doubting that Azes, who was the co-regent of Spalirisa, is identical with the successor of Maues in Panjāb and the north-western frontier province, who was accordingly a Parthian and not a Saka.

Vonones' date.

It is more difficult to settle the question about date.

Attention has been drawn to the varying shape of the Greek omikron on Greek and Scytho-Parthian coins. On the older Greek ones and on those of Maues it is always round. On some of the later Greek coins, e. g. those of Hippostratus, and on those of Azes, the square form begins to be used in addition to the round one. The same change took place on Parthian coins during the reign of Orodes I (57–38 B.C.), and the inference has therefore been drawn that coins showing the square o cannot be earlier than about 40 B.C.

Professor Rapson, however, rightly remarks 2 that this test must be applied with caution. Square forms are also found earlier and seem to be characteristic of certain regions. To infer, on the other hand, from the use of the round o on coins that they are older than about 40 B.C. would be still less justified. The coins of the Vonones group all have the round o, but so have those of the Parthian emperor, Vonones I (A.D. 8-11).

It seems to me that the date assigned to the East-Iranian Vonones by Professor Rapson, c. 30 B.C., is a little too early. If Spalirisa was his brother, the imitation of the coins of Hermaeus points to a somewhat later date. Though this, the last, Greek

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JRAS, 1906, pp. 208 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> l. c., p. 572; JRAS, 1903, p. 285.

king, may have ruled for a long period, Professor Rapson can hardly be right in assuming that he 'may have been reigning for some time before or after c. 40 B.C.' We shall see later on that Hermaeus was, for some time of his reign, associated with the Kushāṇa ruler Kujūla Kadphises, who did not start on his career before about A.D. 25.

In such circumstances we must ask ourselves if it is not possible to identify the East-Iranian Vonones with the Parthian emperor, Vonones I. When the latter mounted the throne of Parthia in succession to his father in A.D. 8, he does not seem to have been a young man. We learn from Tacitus' Annals ii. 2 that he was not fond of hunting and riding, and that he preferred to be carried about in a litter. The Parthians soon got disgusted and called in Artabanus III, who was of Arsacid blood but was living with the Dahae. Vonones took refuge with the Armenians, who made him king in A.D. 16. The Roman governor of Syria, however, reduced him to nominal power, and later on, at the request of Artabanus, he was removed to Cilicia, and, when he attempted to escape, he was killed in A.D. 19.

If we assume that he was then about sixty years old, he would have been about fifty when he was placed on the Parthian throne, and such an age might reasonably be inferred from Tacitus' narrative.

We have already seen that his father Phraates IV sent him and his brothers to Rome about 10 B.C. It is hardly likely that this was merely the outcome of paternal affection and anxiety for the safety of the princes. It looks more like an exile.

Phraates' favourite wife, the Italian slave-girl Musa, whom Augustus had presented to him, seems to have exercised considerable influence, and she would naturally do what she could in order to secure the throne for her own son, Phraataces, in preference to his older half-brothers, who would, of course, be less dangerous in Rome than in Parthia.

On the other hand, the frequent internal troubles during the reign of Phraates IV would more than once have offered an opportunity to his sons for setting up as independent rulers in some part of the empire, e.g. in Arachosia, where we find the East-Iranian Vonones. And if Vonones, the son of Phraates, had tried to do so, we should understand better why he was exiled in 10 B.C.

I therefore think that the most likely inference from the available material is that the East-Iranian Vonones was the same person who later on became the Parthian emperor Vonones I. Some time before 10 B.C. he was in charge of the eastern provinces and there assumed the imperial title 'King of Kings'.

Later on Spalirises assumes the title 'King of Kings', βασιλέων βασιλεύς, in the west, and Azes in the east. And it is perhaps possible to state with some confidence when that latter event took place.

I have already stated above that we are in possession of information to the effect Date of that a Parthian ruler was established to the west of the Indus about the beginning of Azes. the Christian era. This information is contained in a stone inscription found either at Takht-i-Bāhī or at Shāhbāzgarhī and dated in the 26th year of the mahārāja Guduvhara,

and, besides, in the year 103. The latter dating evidently refers to the same era which is used in the Taxila copper-plate of the year 78, and which cannot, as we have seen, have begun before 88 B.C.

The other date, in the year 26 of the mahārāja Guduvhara, has usually been interpreted as a regnal year of Guduvhara. What actually stands on the stone is, however, simply '(during the reign) of the mahārāja Guduvhara, year 26', which can just as well be referred to an era instituted by one of Guduvhara's predecessors. And, as we shall see below, such must be the case, if we are not to assume the use of another era in the Guduvhara inscription, different from that of the Taxila plate. And such an assumption can hardly be justified, unless it can be proved that the ascription of both records to one and the same era leads to impossible results, which is by no means the case.

We know from archaeological evidence that Guduvhara's predecessor was Aya, Azes, and it seems to be an unavoidable inference that the first date of the Guduvhara inscription should be reckoned from the accession of Azes, which must accordingly have taken place in the year 103-26, i. e. 77 of the old Saka era.

Now we have already seen that the initial point of that era cannot be earlier than 88 B. C., and we shall see later on that it can, with some probability, be assigned to the year 84 B. C. The accession of Azes, or rather his assumption of the imperial title in the eastern provinces, would then fall in the year 7-6 B.C., a date which will be found to be in agreement with what we have inferred from other sources.

The introduction of a new era by Azes may be interpreted to indicate that he now set up as an independent ruler and severed his connexion with the princes with whom he had formerly been associated. In such circumstances we understand that his dominions were not included in the list of Isidor of Charax.

Aspavarma.

On some coins bearing the obverse legend βασιλέως βασιλέων μεγάλου AZOY, the reverse has *Imdravarmaputrasa Aspavarmasa strategasa jayatasa*. The use of the Greek title στρατηγός is of interest, as are also the semi-Indian form of the general's and the purely Indian form of his father's name.<sup>1</sup>

Guduvhara.

The same strategos is, on other coin-legends, associated with Azes' successor, Guduvhara, whose coins have been found in great abundance in the Panjāb, and at Begrām in Chārikār, north of Kābul, which district must, therefore, have passed definitely from Greek to Parthian rule during his reign. The stratification at Taxila shows that he was the immediate successor of Azes, and his name, which corresponds to Persian Vindafarna, 'the winner of glory', characterizes him as a Parthian.

Christian tradition.

It has long been recognized that this Guduvhara must be identical with a king called Gondopharnes or Gondophernes, who plays a role in Christian tradition as associated with St. Thomas, the apostle of India and Parthia.\* It is told how the apostles divided the various countries between themselves, and that India fell to the lot of St. Thomas. He did not want to go, but then a merchant called Habbān came as messenger, for the purpose of bringing back a skilled carpenter, from an Indian king whose name is given as Gūdnaphar or Gundaphar in Syriac, Γουνδάφορος, Γουνδιάφορος, οr Γουντάφορος in Greek, Gundaforos or Gundoforos in Latin sources. Jesus appeared to Habbān and sold

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The word *Indra* is also contained in the name  $I[\dot{m}]drarasa$  on some Taxila coins described by Sir John Marshall, ASIAR, 1912-13, pp. 43, 49, plate XL, 23; 1914-15, pp. 27, 32, plate XXIX, 29; 1915-16, p. 32, plate XXV, 10. Sir John reads *Idharasa*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. inter alia Sylvain Lévi, JA, XI, ix, 1897, pp. 27 ff.; IA, xxxiii, 1904, pp. 10 ff.; W. R. Philipps, IA, xxxii, 1903, pp. 1 ff., 145 ff.; Fleet, JRAS, 1905, pp. 223 ff.; Rapson, l. c., pp. 578 f.

St. Thomas to him for twenty silver pieces, and they started for Gūdnaphar's country. There the king ordered the apostle to build a palace, but he spent the money in acts of piety, in order to build a palace not made with hands. The king then cast him in prison. Now Gad, the king's brother, died and was carried by the angels to heaven, where he beheld the palace which the apostle had built through his good works. He was afterwards restored to life, and both he and the king were converted. Later on the apostle proceeded to another king, whose name is given as Mazdai, Misdaios, or Misdeus, and an apocryphal work also brings him into connexion with a certain Labdanes, the sister's son of a king to whom he went.

There can hardly be any doubt about the identity of the king Güdnaphar and the successor of Azes in north-western India, and we can infer that the existence of this king, as ruling shortly after the death of Christ, had become known to the Christian world at an early date.

The coins of this ruler are of various types, and also the legends vary. He bears Guduthe titles 'king saviour' and 'great king of kings', and once a αὐτοκράτωρ. And some of vhara's coins seem to characterize him as a Guḍa or Gaḍa, which may be the name Gad, which is applied to his brother in Christian tradition. The form Gadasa has also been read on an intaglio and a pedestal found at Chārsadda, where, however, the reading is uncertain.

The coins in question are said to come from Seistān and Kandahār,<sup>5</sup> and they have been dealt with by Messrs. Cunningham,<sup>6</sup> Gardner,<sup>7</sup> Rapson,<sup>8</sup> and Whitehead.<sup>9</sup> They show, on the obverse, the Greek legend βασιλεύς βασιλέων μέγας ΟΡΘΑΓΝΗC, and, on the reverse, a Kharoshṭhī legend which is stated to be maharajasa rajatirajasa mahatasa Guduvharasa guḍana <sup>10</sup> (or, guḍa, gada, gudanasa), and, in some specimens, guḍranasa without Guduvharasa.

It has usually been assumed that Guda, Gudana is the name of a person, different from Guduvhara. Cunningham was the first to think of Gad, the king's brother, and Professor Rapson speaks of Gondopharnes as being associated in the subordinate rule as viceroy in Arachosia with Guda or Gudana, 'who may perhaps have been his brother', and thinks that 'the coins on which Orthagnes still appears as chief ruler but with Gudana alone as his subordinate, must no doubt be assigned to the period after Gondopharnes had succeeded Azes II in the sovereignty of N.-W. India'. Mr. Whitehead justly remarks that if Guduvharasa Gudana means 'of Guduvhara and Gad', we should have to state that one of the names is in the genitive singular, the other in the genitive plural. 'On the other hand the word Gudana may be an epithet, or monetary denomination, or

¹ Obverse: βασιλέως σωτήρος ΥΝΔΟΦΕΡΡΟΥ; reverse: maharajasa Gudavharnasa tratarasa.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Obverse: βασιλέως βασιλέων μεγάλου ΥΝΔΟΦΕΡΟΥ; reverse: maharaja rajatiraja tradara devavrada Guduvharasa, maharajasa rajarajasa tratarasa devavratasa Guduvharasa; obverse: βασλέως βασιλέων... ΓΩΝΔΩΦΑΡΩΥ; reverse: maharaja rajaraja mahata [dhramia] devavrata Guduvharasa; obverse illegible; reverse: maharajasa rajatirajasa tratarasa Gadavharnasa, maharajasa rajatirajasa mahatasa Guduvharasa, maharajasa devavratasa Guduvharasa,...dh[r]amia[sa] apradihata[sa] devavratasa Guduvharasa, maharajasa mahatasa Guduvharasa.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Gardner, p. 174, plate XXXII, 10.

<sup>4</sup> ASIAR, 1902-3, p. 167.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Cf. Gardner, p. xlv.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Numismatic Chronicle, 3rd series, x, pp. 121 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> p. 109.

<sup>8</sup> l. c., p. 578.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> pp. 155 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> Cunningham proposed, as an alternative, to read Guduvhara-sagaba.., i.e. Guduvhara-sagarbhasa, 'of the brother of Guduvhara', but Mr. Whitehead is certainly right in rejecting this reading.

again it may, as suggested by Dr. J. F. Fleet, give us the name of the tribe of Gondo-phares.'

It seems to me that Dr. Fleet's explanation is the only possible one. We find the two variants Guduvharasa Gudana and Guduvharasa Gudanasa, i. e. probably Gudanasa, where Gudanasa must be an adjective characterizing Guduvharasa, wherefore we must necessarily infer that Gudana, which is the genitive plural of Guda, has a similar meaning. Now it is well known that we have an exact parallel to the doublet Guda, Gudana in the designations of the Kushāṇas. The Taxila silver scroll of the year 136 has maharajasa rajatirajasa devaputrasa Khushaṇasa, while the coin-legends of Kanishka run shaonano shao Kaneshki Koshano, where Khushaṇasa is the genitive singular of an adjective Khushana, while Koshano, i. e. Kushānu, is the genitive plural of a simplex Kushi (Kusha). We know, e.g. from the Saka language of Khotan, that adjectives were formed from nouns by means of the suffix āna (cf. balysi, Buddha; balysāni, Bauddha), and it seems evident that Gudana, i. e. Gudāna, is formed from Guda just as Kushāṇa from Kusha. But then Guda must be the name of Guduvhara's tribe, and Gudāna might be translated 'Gudian'. The idiom Guduvharasa Gudana has an exact parallel in the coin-legend Kaneshki Koshano and means 'of Guduvhara of (the tribe of) the Gudas'.

We do not know anything about the family or tribe of the Gudas. If the initial g is of the same kind as in Guduvhara, Gudāna may be the same word as Vardanes, the name of a son of Artabanus III, who claimed the throne of Parthia after his father's demise in A.D. 40.2 But we are not in a position to make any definite statement. We can only say that Guda was probably the name of Guduvhara's tribe or family, and there is no improbability in the Christian account about the king's brother Gad. He was, like his brother, a Guda.

The designation Orthagnes, occurring on the obverse of these coins, is, as is well known, equivalent with Avestan verethraghna, 'victorious', and the reverse of the coins shows a winged Nike with palm and wreath. Orthagnes is usually considered to be the name of the suzerain, under whom Guduvhara held a subordinate position. Professor Rapson thinks that Guduvhara succeeded Azes as viceroy in Arachosia before he became his successor as Great King of Kings in India. The legend on the reverse of the Orthagnes coins does not, however, point to a subordinate position. The titles of Guduvhara are exactly equivalent to those of Orthagnes. In such circumstances it seems to me that Orthagnes must be identical with Guduvhara, i. e. it is not a name but an honorific designation assumed after an important victory. And since these coins have been found in Seistān and Kandahār, we may perhaps assume that Guduvhara, as Great King of Kings, made a victorious expedition against the Sakas in the west.

On another group of coins, where the obverse shows a king on horseback with the right hand extended just as on the coins with the legend βασλέως βασιλέων μεγάλου ΥΝΔΟΦΕΡΟΥ, the Greek is corrupt, while the Kharoshthī text runs maharajasa rajatirajasa (or, mahatasa) devavradasa Guduvharasa Sasasa. Cunningham ascribed them to a ruler, Sasan, while Mr. Vincent Smith regarded the word sasasa as an epithet or title. Mr. Whitehead be

<sup>5</sup> D. 147<sup>1</sup>.

Sasa.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Yavanasa Irilasa Gatāna, of the Yavana Irila of (the tribe of the) Gatas (Goths); Yavanasa Chiṭasa Gatāna, in two Junnar inscriptions, Lüders, List, Nos. 1154 and 1182, and Konow, JRAS, 1912, pp. 379 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Artabanus did not perhaps belong to the agnatic line of the Arsacids, because it is stated that he 'was of Arsacid blood but had grown up among the Dahae'; cf. Tacitus, Annals ii. 3 'Arsacidarum e sanguine apud Dahas adultus'.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Numismatic Chronicle, 3rd series, x, 1890, p. 120.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Cat., p. 54<sup>4</sup>.

draws attention to the fact that the word sasasa occupies the place of honour, where the name of the king is almost always situated, and reminds us of the fact that the name Sāsān is well known. Moreover, one of the coins described by Mr. Vincent Smith has the legend [rayara] yasa apratihatachakasa devavradasa Sasasa without Guduvharasa. There can hardly be any doubt that Sasa is a name.

Some Sasa coins were found by Sir John Marshall at Sirkap, where the obverse shows the bust of a bearded king, in which Professor Rapson has recognized the king Pacores, with whom we shall have to occupy ourselves below. The reverse bears the Kharoshthī legend maharajasa Aspabhataputrasa tratarasa Sasasa, i. c., as explained by Sir John, of the mahārāja, the brother's son of Aspa[varma], the saviour'. It thus becomes evident that Sasa is the name of a scion of the family of Aspavarma, the strategos of Azes and Guduvhara.

Other coin legends mention a nephew of Guduvhara called Abdagases. Accord-Abdagases. ing to Gardner these coins have been found in the Western Panjāb. There are two different legends, viz. βασιλέως σωτῆρος ΑΒΔΑΓΑCOY on the obverse and maharayasa Avadagašasa tradarasa on the reverse; and βασιλεύοντος βασιλέωνν ΑΒΔΑΓΑΣΟΥ on the obverse and Guduvharabhradaputrasa maharajasa (tradarasa) Avadagašasa on the reverse. The titles seem to show that he did not occupy an independent position. Mr. Whitehead registers a coin with the Kharoshṭhī legend maharajasa rajatirajasa Gadavharabhrataputrasa Avadagašasa. If this reading is right, it shows that Abdagases may at some time have assumed the imperial title. To judge from Mr. Whitehead's plate, however, the word preceding Gadavhara or, rather, Guduvhara, seems to be maharajasa.

The king Pacores, whose bust Professor Rapson has recognized on some Sasa coins, Pacores. on the other hand seems to have occupied an independent position. His coins come from Kandahār and the country to the west of Bhakar, and, according to Professor Rapson, they 'show that he was undoubtedly suzerain in Irān, for they bear the imperial title together with the type "Victory" which was first issued by Orthagnes...; and his portrait combined on coins found at Takshaśilā with the symbol of Gondopharnes and the legend of the commander-in-chief, Sasas, proves that he exercised at least a nominal sway in India'.

He cannot be identified with the king Pacores II of Parthia, because the bust on the latter's coins is different and his date (A-D. 77-110) too late. Another Pacores, the brother of Vologases I (A.D. 57-77), is mentioned as having received the kingdom of Media Atropane after the accession of Vologases, but we have no means for judging of his possible identity with our Pacores.

Another king, Sanabares, whose coins bear the legend βασιλεύς μέγας CANABAPHC, Sanabares. does not seem to have held sway in India or in Kandahār, but only in Seistān.<sup>10</sup>

At Sirkap Sir John Marshall found an earthen jar containing one coin each of the Sapedama, reigns of Pacores and the Kushāṇa Wima Kadphises, and further some coins with the Satavastra. portrait and symbols of Guduvhara and legends in Greek and Kharoshṭhī,<sup>11</sup> the former

<sup>5</sup> p. 154.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASIAR, 1912–13, pp. 44, 49 f. <sup>2</sup> l. c., p. 580.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cunningham, l. c., p. 119, draws attention to the existence of a Parthian noble of this name among those who dethroned Artabanus III in A.D. 35, and thinks that this Abdagases may have been the father of Guduvhara and Sinnaces, the latter's son again being the Abdagases of the coins. We have no means for judging of the probability or improbability of this suggestion.

<sup>4</sup> l. c., p. xlv.

 <sup>6</sup> Cf. Cunningham, l. c., p. 122.
 7 l. c., p. 580.
 8 βασιλεύς βασιλέων Πακορης, maharajasa rajatirajasa mahatasa Pakurasa.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Cf. Wroth, l. c., p. lii. <sup>10</sup> Cf. Rapson, l. c., p. 580. <sup>11</sup> Cf. ASIAR, 1912-13, pp. 44, 50.

being partly illegible, the latter running maharajasa rajarajasa tratarasa dhramiasa Sapedamasa and maharajasa rajarajasa tratarasa Satavastrasa. We do not know anything about the identity of these rulers, but Professor Rapson is probably right in interpreting their coins and titles as showing 'that, even in the reign of Gondopharnes, the allegiance of the governors the suzerain was becoming merely nominal'.

The coins do not accordingly prove the existence of any independent Parthian

Phraotes.

The coins do not accordingly prove the existence of any independent Parthian suzerain in north-western India after Guduvhara. Such a ruler is, however, mentioned in the account of the visit to India of Apollonius of Tyana about A.D. 44, which is found in the romance of Philostratus (3rd century A.D.). We are there told 1 that the king then reigning at Taxila was Phraotes, who was independent of Vardanes, the King of Kings of Parthia (A.D. 41-45), and himself powerful enough to exercise suzerain powers over the satrapy of Gandhāra, though he found it necessary to pay subsidies to the wilder tribes on his frontiers in order to keep them quiet.

Phraotes is evidently the same name as Phraates, which is used by several Parthian rulers about the beginning of our era, and we have not a priori any reason for discrediting the statement in Philostratus' work, and we have every reason for accepting his description of the state of things in Taxila about A.D. 44: a Parthian emperor was in power, but 'wilder' tribes had begun to exercise pressure in the west, and these wilder tribes cannot have been other than the Kushāṇas, whom we shall soon find as the successors of the Parthians in N.-W. India.

The result of the preceding discussion is that a Parthian dynasty rose to power in Arachosia in the first century B.C. A ruler of this house, Azes, established an independent empire in N.-W. India about 7 B.C., and his successor, Guduvhara, conquered the Sakas in Drangiāna and Arachosia and also reduced the Greeks of Kābul. He may have had one successor as King of Kings, and his dynasty seems, at all events, to have held its own in Taxila about A.D. 44.

Length of Guduvhara's reign. We have already seen that Guduvhara's name is found in a Kharoshthī inscription dated in the years 103 and 26, and I have stated that I take the first of these dates to refer to the era used in the inscriptions of the old Sakas, and the second to an era instituted by Guduvhara's predecessor, Azes. It follows that the record belongs to one of the first years of the rule of Guduvhara, perhaps to the very first, and it is in thorough agreement with such an assumption that he is simply designated as maharaya, and not with the imperial title. As we shall see below in the chapter about eras, the date of the inscription seems to correspond to A.D. 19. At that time Guduvhara had consequently become established as ruler. How long he remained on the throne we do not know. One of his coins 2 seems to bear the date sam 20, and if this means the twentieth year of his reign and his first year was A.D. 19, he must consequently have remained in power till about A.D. 40, shortly before the time when Apollonius is stated to have found his successor, or one of his successors, Phraotes, on the throne of Taxila.

erjhuṇa Kapa. Towards the end of the inscription of the year 103 we find the words erjhuna Kapasa puyae, in honour of erjhuna Kapa. Here erjhuna is evidently the same word which we find as alysanai, eysānai in the language of the ancient Iranian population of Khotan, the same language which the great Kushāna ruler Kanishka later on employed in his coin-legends. And Kapa is probably another and older Kushāna, who on his

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Marshall, l. c., p. 7; A Guide to Taxila, 2nd edition, Calcutta, 1921, p. 14; Smith, ZDMG, 68, 1914, pp. 329 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Gardner, plate XXII, 12; cf. Fleet, JRAS, 1905, p. 229.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> For the correspondence  $u < \bar{a}$ , we may compare Saka kshāni, Kharoshthī kshuṇa.

coins is called Kadapha, Kaphsa, Kapa, &c. In the inscription he is designated as *erjhuna*, and as the corresponding *alysānai* is used to translate Skr. *kumāra*, we may infer that he was then a young prince, and perhaps without any official position.

If the identity of the *erjhuna* Kapa and the Kushana Kadapha, or as he is usually called, Kujūla Kadphises, proves to be right, we here for the first time meet with a family or tribe which later on plays a considerable role during the period covered by Kharoshthī inscriptions.

Several ancient rulers are designated as Kushāṇas, and they can be divided into Kushāṇas. two different lines, one comprising at least two kings, who are usually spoken of as Kadphises I and Kadphises II or as Kujūla Kadphises and Wima Kadphises, respectively, from the names occurring on their coins, and another which begins with the most famous of all Kushāṇas, the emperor Kanishka, and remained in power over a large part of India for about a century, while in the north-west minor dynasties traced their descent from Kanishka down to much later times.

The stratification at Taxila shows that the Kushāṇas were the immediate successors of Guduvhara's dynasty, and important Kharoshṭhī inscriptions bear witness to their rule. It will therefore be necessary to examine what we can learn about them, about their origin and history.

The very name Kushāṇa and its proper significance has been made the subject of Name discussion. It is found in several slightly different forms. Greek coin-legends of Kushāṇa. Kadphises I give κορσανο and χορανου, where the Kharoshṭhī has kushaṇa or khushaṇa; in Indian Kharoshṭhī inscriptions we find gushaṇa and khushaṇa, in Central Asian Kharoshṭhī kushaṇa and kurshaṇa,¹ and in a Brāhmī inscription from Māṭ near Mathurā kushāṇa(putro). A similar form seems to be represented by the Chinese kuci-shuang,² with which we shall have to deal below.

All these forms point to an adjective formed with the suffix ana from a base beginning with a guttural, which may have been a fricative, and containing a sh or rsh. The short base is, as already remarked, contained in the genitive plural koshano occurring in the coin-legends of Kanishka and his successors. It also seems to have occurred in the Sanskrit Buddhist text Kalpanāmanditikā of Kumāralāta, where King Kanishka is stated to be of the family (kula) of the Kiu-sha, i. e. evidently Kusha, and perhaps also in other works.

Baron A. von Staël Holstein is of opinion that the adjective kushana does not exist, the form being everywhere the genitive plural of kusha. Forms such as khushanasa he explains as khushanasa, i.e. shah, 'King of the Kushas', just as he explains the genitive Sasasa discussed above in connexion with the Guduvhara coins as standing for san sasa, 'of the King of Kings'. Even if we were prepared to admit the possibility of such a hybrid form as sa, genitive sasa, in a language which consistently distinguishes between s and sh, and in a script which possesses a separate sign for sh, which I do not think we can, the Chinese kuei-shuang and Central Asian names such as Kushanasena, seem to prove the existence of the adjective kushana, which bears the same relation to kusha as gudana to guda.

Not only the form but also the meaning of kusha, kushana has been subject to The

Kushāņas a tribe or sept.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Khar. Inscr., nos. 79, 117, 136, 193, 198, 320, 399, &c.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Pronounced *kjwei-sjang* in Tang times according to Karlgren, nos. 456, 923. Kj here means a yodicized k.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Lüders, Bruchstücke der Kalpanāmanditikā des Kumāralāta, Leipzig, 1926, p. 67.

<sup>4</sup> JRAS, 1914, pp. 79 ff., SBAW, 1914, pp. 643 ff.

doubt. The Baron saw in kusha the same word which the Chinese render as Yüe-chi, the tribe mentioned above in connexion with the old Sakas. I shall have to return to the question about this identification later on. In the present place it is sufficient to state that if the Baron were right, we should have to separate the word kusha, kushāṇa from Chinese kuei-shuang, and there is not, as we shall see, any sufficient reason for doing so. Moreover, the passages from the Kalpanāmaṇḍitikā referred to above seem to prove that the Kushas, Kushāṇas were a tribe or a family within a larger group, and I shall draw attention below to some facts which seem to prove that this larger group was the Yüe-chi.

Nationality of the Kushāņas.

In order to become able to judge about the Kushāṇas it will be necessary to examine the indications about their ethnic and linguistic affinity which can be gathered from the available sources. And in this respect Kanishka's dynasty has played a prominent role in the discussion.

Turki theory. We know that, at a later period, the Turkī kings of Gandhāra claimed Kanishka as their ancestor, and Kalhana speaks in his Rājataranginī I, 170, of Kanishka and the other members of his dynasty as Turushkas, i. e. Turks. Some of the designations used by the first Kadphises have also been explained as Turkī. In inscriptions and coinlegends he is, as we shall see, characterized as a yavuga, yaŭa, ¿aoos, and in Chinese sources this title occurs as hi-hou, old pronunciation xipp-yau. This title was identified by Hirth with Turkī jabgu, and the inference was drawn that the Kushānas were Turks. Also the designation kujūla has been explained in a similar way. Professor Hultzsch compared Turkī gūjlū, 'strong', and I have thought of gūzel, 'beautiful'. M. Sylvain Lévi has also drawn attention to the statement in Hemachandra's Abhidhānachintāmani 959 that the Turks are śākhis, i. e. use the royal title śākhi, where śākhi is evidently written for shāhi, the title used by Kanishka and his successors in Brāhmī inscriptions.

Supposed Turkī features. It has also been thought possible to find proofs of the Turkī nationality of the Kushāṇas in the features presented by the likenesses on their coins. Thus Mr. Kennedy is positive that they 'belonged to the great Turkī family', and speaks of Kanishka's features as characteristic of his race. 'He has the pointed cranium, the salient cheekbones, the large, long and heavy nose, the thick beard . . . and his coins represent him as a powerfully built barbarian king, clad in the loose coat and huge boots which were the common dress of Turkestan.'

None of these arguments are, however, conclusive.

Homo alpinus. The large nose and the other features shown in the likenesses are characteristic of the so-called *Homo alpinus*, which is stated to be largely represented in the population of Chinese Turkestan. This type has been described by Mr. T. A. Joyce as follows: <sup>8</sup> 'A white-rosy race; very brachycephalic; stature above the average; with thin prominent nose, varying from aquiline to straight; long oval face; hair brown, usually dark, always abundant and curly; eyes medium in the main.'

Moreover, everything which we know about the history and ethnology of Chinese Turkestan is to the effect that the Turkī element is comparatively late. Even at the present day the population has been described by Mr. Joyce as follows: 'The majority

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Karlgren, nos. 128 and 79.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Nachworte zur Inschrift des Tonjukuk (Radloff, Die alttürkischen Inschriften der Mongolei, Zweite Folge, T. ii), p. 48.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> ZDMG, 69, 1915, p. 176.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> JA, IX, ix, 1897, p. 10 note.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> JRAS, 1912, p. 670.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> l. c., p. 1360.

<sup>4</sup> SBAW, 1916, p. 799.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Turushkās tu sākhayaḥ syuḥ.

<sup>8</sup> Stein, Serindia, p. 1361.

of the peoples surrounding the Taklamakan desert have a very large common element ... seen in its purest form in Wakhi. The fact that the Wakhi display so close a relationship with the Galcha proves that the basis of the Taklamakan population is Iranian.'

Now Chinese Turkestan is, as we shall see, the probable home of the Kushānas, and we have not, therefore, any a priori reason for considering them as Turks.

At a later time, it is true, Turkī tribes make their appearance in the country where the Kushāṇas were once the rulers, and this fact explains the statements of Kalhaṇa and Hemachandra, which are based on a later state of things.

The supposed Turkī origin of the titles or designations yavuga and kujūla, finally, is more than doubtful. It has not proved possible to find a Turkī etymology for the word yavuga. I have already mentioned that it seems to be used, in the form jailva, i. e. probably zaüva, by the Saka Patika, and even if it were originally a Turkī word, it seems more probable that the Kushāṇas had taken it over from the old Sakas than that it was a reminiscence of their Turkī descent. We shall see later on that the Kushāṇas throughout behaved as the inheritors of the Sakas, and also other Saka titles are used by them. And besides it is more likely that the title yavuga is originally Iranian and has subsequently been adopted by Turkī tribes than that the opposite should have been the case.

With regard to the designation  $kuj\bar{u}la$ , it has already been seen that it is likewise used by old Sakas, and it is therefore common to the two tribes just as the title yavuga. About its etymology and significance we do not know anything, but Lüders is probably right in thinking 1 that it is the name of a family or a clan.

We must accordingly look out for other indications, and such as there are point to The the conclusion that the Kushāṇas were Iranians. We seem to be justified in drawing Kushāṇas this conclusion by the fact that several terms and designations used by them find their explanation in an Iranian language, which was once spoken and used in literature in parts of Chinese Turkestan, and only in it.

This language was called North-Aryan by Professor Leumann, who was the first to Khotani give a connected account of its peculiarities.<sup>2</sup> French scholars, beginning with M. Pelliot,<sup>3</sup> Saka lanspeak of it as East-Iranian, and Professor Lüders as the Saka language. I have formerly preferred the neutral designation suggested by Professor Kirste, Khotani, because we know that it was used in the Khotan country as an official language in the eighth century A.D., and seems to have been spoken there since the first centuries of our era. At an early date, apparently after the introduction of Buddhism, it was also used in literature in the southern oases.

Professor Lüders has shown that there are remarkable points of agreement between this form of speech and the language of the old Sakas, as evidenced by Saka names, and there can be little doubt that the designation Khotanī is too narrow. It is a Saka

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> SBAW, 1922, p. 261.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Zur nordarischen Sprache und Literatur, Strassburg, 1912.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Mémoires de la Société de Linguistique, 18, 1913, pp. 89 ff.

<sup>4</sup> SBAW, 1913, pp. 406 ff.; 1919, pp. 734 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> WZKM, 26, p. 395. 
<sup>6</sup> Cf. my remarks, JRAS, 1914, pp. 339 ff.

They might now be considerably enlarged. Of words and forms adopted from the old Iranian language in the Kharoshthi documents I may e.g. mention vita, 'was' (no. 295); vitaindi, 'were' (no. 272), which would sound vite, vitāndi in Khotani Saka; vaindi, 'in', 'near', corresponding to Pashto bāndi, Khotani Saka bendi, &c.

language, and the only Saka language about which we are more fully informed. I shall therefore speak of it as Saka or Sakish.

Saka literature cannot provisionally be dated farther back than about the fourth century A.D.,1 and we know that an Indian language was used in administration in the south of Chinese Turkestan at least in the second and third centuries, as we shall see later on. But the Kharoshthī documents written in that form of speech bear witness to the existence of Sakish as a spoken vernacular, as indicated above. And they even allow us to state that a certain phonetic development had taken place between the second and the fourth century. For the word vaindi, i. e. vandi, 'in', 'on', which is found as a 'loanword' in the documents, has become bendi in literary Saka. And a characteristic feature of the latter, the change of old r to l before s, s, and ys, seems to be later than the first century A.D. For the word erjhuna in the Guduvhara inscription of the year 103 is evidently, as remarked above, a shorter form, without the suffix ka, of alysanai, eysanai in literary Saka.

Sakish in Kushāņa coins and

We have already found some designations among the Kushāṇas, which can be traced with Sakas as well, viz. yavuga, kujūla, i. e. as shown by the Greek κοζουλο, kuzūla, and inscriptions. erjhuna. The word alysanai has been explained by Professor Leumann 3 as a middle participle of the base which we have in Greek ἄρχων. I prefer to look on it as an adjective formed with the suffix ana, anaka from a simplex corresponding to Greek apx6s, a leader, just as we have balysani, 'Bauddha', from balysi, 'Buddha', and kushana from

> Other Saka designations are found in connexion with the later Kushāṇa branch, and especially with King Kanishka.

> In an inscription of the year 11 found at Zeda this ruler bears the titles muroda and marjhaka. Here muroda evidently stands for murunda and is clearly the old Saka designation which we have learnt to know above. And marjhaka can hardly be anything else than the Saka word malysaki, which is used as a translation of Skr. grihapatiratna, 'who sees all treasures below ground and transfers those which have no owner to the king's treasury',4 so that the designation characterizes the king as a ruler abounding in treasure.

> And, finally, the coin-legends of Kanishka and his successors are written in pure Khotani Saka. They are written in Greek letters and can be transliterated as shaonano shao kaneshki koshano. If we bear in mind that the Greek omicron often renders an Indian or Iranian short u,6 we may read the text as shaunanu shau Kaneshki kushanu. Here shau is a well-known Saka word for 'king', which is used in several documents of the eighth century, where it is written shshau.7 It is formed from the same base as shāhi, shāh, but with the suffix van, and shaunānu is the regular genitive plural of this

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> I shall show below that King Kanishka began to use Sakish in his coin-legends, and this fact may be taken as an indication that the language had begun to be reduced to writing. And we hear about Buddhist works being translated from the Kuishan language into that of Barchuq, i.e. the present Maralbashi near Yarkand, and about other translations from the same language into Tocharian and thence into Turkish. But we are not told where this Kuishan language was used.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. chahaurä, 'four', but chaholsä, 'forty'; brashte, 'asked', but pulsāmä, 'we ask'; mulysdi, <sup>3</sup> l.c., p. 63. 'compassion', from mritdi, &c., Leumann, l. c., p. 63.

Cf. Maitreya-samiti, das Zukunftsideal der Buddhisten. Die nordarische Schilderung in Text und Übersetzung, von Ernst Leumann, Strassburg, 1919, p. 67, v. 156.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Cf. my remarks, ZDMG, 68, 1914, pp. 85 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Cf. Fleet, JRAS, 1907, p. 1046; J. Kirste, SWAW, Phil. hist. Kl., 182, 2, p. 17.

<sup>7</sup> Cf. my remarks, Ostasiatische Zeitschrift, viii, pp. 220 ff. <sup>8</sup> Cf. Sogdian, xshēvanê, 'king.

word. As these words are Sakish, the same must be the case with the last word kushānu, which must accordingly be the genitive plural of kushi, where -i is the regular Saka termination of the nominative and genitive singular; cf. my remarks about the word Guḍana in some of the coin-legends of Guduvhara.

The remaining word Kaneshki can be the nominative or the genitive. The Greek legend βασιλεύς βασιλέων ΚΑΝΗΦΚΟΥ, however, shows that it is probably the genitive, i. e. we have before us an idiom which is well known from Chinese Turkestan, where names and titles are strung together in such a way that only the last is put in the genitive, the remainder standing in the nominative.

Everything accordingly points to the conclusion that the Kushāṇas were Iranians, at least in language, and the affinity with the Sakas leads us to think that they were a Saka clan or family. This inference would be proved if the reading σακα-κορσανών on the coins of Heraus or Miaus proves to be right.<sup>2</sup>

In order to arrive at more precise results it may be of interest to examine the Chinese Chinese accounts of the Kuei-shuang, i.e. the Kushāṇas. They are there mentioned accounts, in connexion with two other peoples, the Yüe-chi and the Ta-hia, and it is possible that they can be identified with one of these two.

We have already touched the history of the Yüe-chi in connexion with the Sakas, Yüe-chi, but now we must take it up in greater detail.

The Chinese seem to have been aware of the existence of the Yüe-chi since the second half of the third century B.c. We read in the Shi-ki: 3 'Originally they were strong and esteemed the Hiung-nu of small account. But when Mao-tun mounted the throne, he attacked the Yüe-chi and defeated them. When the shan-yü Lau-shang had killed the king of the Yüe-chi, he took his skull and made it into a drinking-cup. Originally the Yüe-chi lived between Tun-huang and the Ki-lien. After they had been defeated by the Hiung-nu, they went far away, beyond Ta-wan (Ferghana). In the west they defeated the Ta-hia and made them subject to themselves. Thereafter they lived to the north of the Oxus river and established their head-quarters there.'

According to the same source \* the defeat of the Yüe-chi must have taken place before 176 B.C., in which year Mao-tun informed the Chinese emperor of the fact in a letter.

The result was that the Yüe-chi made themselves masters of the Sai-wang country, as we have already seen. According to M. Chavannes 6 that happened in or about the year 165 B.C.

We have already heard that the Yüe-chi were not to remain long in the Sai-wang country. The Ts'ien Han-shu recontains the information that the king of the Wu-sun had an old grudge against the Yüe-chi and therefore attacked them and drove them out.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. mahanuava maharaya jitugha Vashmana devaputrasa in Kharoshthi documents from the Niya site (Konow, Acta Orientalia, ii, pp. 113 ff.); shshau Shanira salya, in King Shanira's year, in one of the Saka documents mentioned above, and, from Indian Kharoshthi maharaya rajatiraya Hoveshkasra in the Wardak Vase inscription.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Rapson, Indian Coins, pp. 9 f.; Oldenberg, Journal of the Pali Text Society, 1910-12, p. 1<sup>3</sup>; Kirste, l.c., pp. 55 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Chap. 110 fol. 6 v°, chap. 123, fol. 4, cf. Marquart, pp. 201 ff.; F. W. K. Müller, SBAW, 1918, p. 571.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> The Shi-ki-cheng-i quotes authority to show that the old country of the Yue-chi comprised Liang-chou, Kan-chou, Su-chou, Kua-chou, and Sha-chou.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Chap. 110, fol. 13 ro; cf. Wylie, Journal of the Anthropological Institute, iii, 1874, p. 415; Franke, Beiträge, p. 13.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Toung Pao, II, viii, p. 1891; cf., however, Franke, Beiträge, p. 551.

<sup>7</sup> Chap. 61, fol. 4 ro; cf. Franke, Beiträge, p. 15.

And we are told that this happened just at the time when the Shan-yü, i. e. Mao-tun's successor (174-160 B.C.), died.

Yüe-chi and Ta-hia.

It was accordingly after 160 B. C. that the Yüe-chi went westwards and conquered the Ta-hia.

The Chinese got more information about the Yüe-chi through Chang K'ien, who was sent westwards in order to enlist the assistance of the Yüe-chi against the Hiung-nu in 138 B.C.<sup>1</sup> He was long detained by the Hiung-nu, but after about ten years he succeeded in escaping to Ta-wan (Ferghāna), whence he was escorted to the K'ang-kü (Sogdiana), who again sent him on to the Yüe-chi. He did not succeed in enlisting their services and was no more successful with the Ta-hia, wherefore he returned to China in 126 B.C.

The account of his mission was the chief source from which the Chinese got further information about the Yüe-chi.

Their country was stated to be rich and fertile, and the people peaceful and happy. Their capital was Kien-she, to the north of the Oxus, and they had made themselves masters of the Ta-hia, whose capital was Lan-shi, to the south of the river, in the present Badakhshān.<sup>2</sup>

Hou Hanshu. Further information is contained in the Annals of the Later Han, the Hou Han-shu. They were written by Fan Ye, who died in A.D. 445, and their account of the Western Countries has been translated by M. Chavannes.<sup>3</sup> Fan Ye states: 'The notes which Pan Ku has written on the configuration and the manner of the various (Western) Countries are detailed in the book of the older (Han); now I have chosen what in the events of the period Kien-wu (A.D. 25-55) or later was different from what has already been said formerly, and I have compared the chapters on the Western Countries on that; all the facts have been related by Pan Yung at the end of the reign of the emperor Ngan (A.D. 107-125).'

It is accordingly the events of the period A.D. 25-125 which are narrated by Fan Ye, though there are some additions referring to a somewhat later time in the case of countries which were near enough to remain in contact with China after the reign of the emperor Ngan. It is therefore only what we should expect when we here find a different state of things than in the older accounts.

The capital of the Yüe-chi is now the old Ta-hia capital Lan-shi, in Badakhshān, which remained their stronghold down to the fifth century of our era. There is accordingly a marked change since the days of Chang, Kien, when the Yüe-chi were settled to the north of the Oxus. The conquest of the Ta-hia country does not seem to have been completed at that time, and we have thought it possible above to assume that Saka tribes were then still in power in Bactria. In the period of the Hou Han-shu the Yüe-chi had settled down in the old Ta-hia country and now represented the whole Ta-hia empire, i. e., as M. Chavannes puts it: henceforward they are the Ta-hia.

We do not know exactly when this change took place. It must have been some time between Chang K'ien's departure and A.D. 25, and it is evident that the same events are referred to by Trogus, when he speaks of the Asiani, the kings of the Tocharians, and the annihilation of the Saraucae, i. e. the Asiani are the Yüe-chï and the Tocharians the Ta-hia, and the final reduction of the Ta-hia country brought about the annihilation

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Wylie, Journal of the Anthropological Institute, x, 1881, pp. 60 ff.; Hirth, JAOS, xxxvii, pp. 89 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Chavannes, Toung Pao, II, viii, p. 187<sup>2</sup>.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> l. c., pp. 149 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Cf. Chavannes, l. c., p. 187 with notes.

of the Saraucae, who may, consequently, be considered to have exercised a certain supremacy over the Ta-hia or Tocharians before that time.

Trogus' remarks about these events are found in the Prologus of the 42nd book as an addition to the account of Parthian history down to the reign of Phraates IV (38-2 B.C.), and we should be inclined to draw the inference that they had been completed in the second half of the first century B.C. But it is impossible to be confident.

Before dealing with the Ta-hia or Tocharians it will be practical to add some remarks Little Yüe-about a branch of the Yüe-chi which did not join in the expedition towards the Ta-hia. chi.

The passage of the Shï-ki quoted above (p. liii) about the Yüe-chï establishing themselves to the north of the Oxus gives the further information: 'a remainder of them, small in number, who were unable to depart, took refuge with the K'iang in the southern mountains and were called the little Yüc-chï', evidently in order to distinguish them from the conquerors of Ta-hia, who are usually called Ta Yüe-chï, i. e. Great Yüe-chï. And the Weï-lio, which was compiled by Yü Huan and covers the period of the Weï down to the reign of the emperor Ming (227–239), contains the statement that 'in the mountains to the south of Tun-huang and the Western Countries, from the Jê-k'iang to the Ts'ung-ling (Pamir), over a stretch of more than a thousand li, are found the remaining tribes of the Yüe-chī'. They are here mentioned together with several Tibetan tribes, but there is no reason for doubting that also the Yüe-chī were living there at that time.<sup>2</sup>

We also hear about Yüe-chi tribes farther to the east after the westward movement of the Great Yüe-chi. The Hou Han-shu<sup>3</sup> states that the Hu tribe of the Yüe-chi lived in Huang-chung, the present Si-ning-fu in Kan-su: 'when the Chinese general Ho-k'ü-ping conquered the Hiung-nu (121 B.C.) and took the country on the Si-ho, he also invaded Huang-chung; then the Yüe-chi submitted to the Chinese and lived together with them. Though they had submitted to the district officers, their chiefs controlled their doings'.

We also hear that some of the Yüe-chi had returned to their old seats in Kan-chou, where they are stated to have revolted against the officials in A.D. 189. It must have been these Yüe-chi who are stated in the Ts'ien Han-shu to have taken part in an expedition in order to prevent an alliance between the Hiung-nu and the Tibetans in 61 B.C.

Even so late as A.D. 939 the Little Yüe-chi are mentioned as a warlike tribe in Kan-su.<sup>5</sup>

It is necessary to mention this because there are, as we shall see, some indications to show that Kanishka rose to power in Chinese Turkestan, so that there may be some connexion between the Kushāṇas and the Little Yüe-chï.

It is only after the Yüe-chi had completed the conquest of the Ta-hia country and Ta-hia become the representatives of the Ta-hia empire that we hear about the Kuei-shuang, i. e. the Kushāṇas, in Chinese sources. In order to grasp all the features which may help us to judge of the race-affinity of the Kushāṇas, we must, therefore, examine the Chinese accounts about the Ta-hia.

The oldest ones are found in the Shï-ki (chap. 123, fol. 6 f.) and the Ts'ien Han-shu (chap. 96). According to the former source 'Ta-hia is situated more than 2,000 li

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Franke, Ostasiatische Zeitschrift, vi, p. 85, where further references are given.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Chavannes, Toung Pao, 11, vi, pp. 526 f.; Franke, Beiträge, p. 28, and Ostasiatische Zeitschrift, vi, p. 85, against F. W. K. Müller, SBAW, 1918, pp. 570 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Chap. 117, fol. 27 v° f.; cf. Franke, Beiträge, pp. 26 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Chap. 69, fol. 3 v°; cf. Chavannes, T'oung Pao, II, vi, p. 5268.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Cf. Franke, Beiträge, pp. 9<sup>2</sup>, 27; Chavannes, l. c., p. 527<sup>1</sup>.

south-west of Ta-wan (Ferghana) and south of the Wei water (Oxus). The farmers have towns and houses, and they have the same customs as the Ta-wan. The people have no supreme ruler, but the various towns appoint minor chiefs. The soldiers there are weak and fear warfare, they are skilled in trading and marketing'.

We have already seen that the Chinese ambassador Chang K'ien found the Ta-hia subject to the Yüe-chi, and Lan-shi in the present Badakhshān as their capital. The Ts'ien Han-shu adds about the Ta-hia that there were there five principalities, each under one hi-hou, which all depended on the Ta Yüe-chi, viz. Hiu-mi, with the capital Ho-mo; Shuang-mi, with the capital Shuang-mi; Kuei-shuang with the capital Hu-tsao; Hi-tun with the capital Po-mao, and Kao-fu with the capital Kao-fu.

In the Hou Han-shu the state of things is, as already remarked, different. Lan-shi is now the capital of the Yüe-chi, and the Annals go on to say: 'Formerly the Yüe-chi were conquered by the Hiung-nu; they transferred themselves to the Ta-hia and divided that kingdom between five *hi-hou*, viz. those of Hiu-mi, Shuang-mi, Kuei-shuang, Hi-tun, and Tu-mi.'

It will be seen that this account differs from the old one in two respects: instead of mentioning the five principalities as existing within the Ta-hia country, it says that the Yüe-chi divided the Ta-hia empire between five *hi-hou*, and instead of Kao-fu it gives Tu-mi as the name of the fifth principality.

With regard to the latter point the Annals expressly state 2 that it is a mistake of the Ts'ien Han-shu to mention Kao-fu among the five principalities. It was only at a later date that Kao-fu was included in the empire.

On the other hand, it is possible that the Ts'ien Han-shu is right in its remark about the five principalities. They may have been in existence before the Yüe-chi subjected the whole Ta-hia empire. And it is clear that they were only a part of the Ta-hia country.<sup>3</sup>

Professor Marquart has identified Hiu-mi with the present Wakhān, Shuang-mi with Chitrāl, Kuei-shuang with the country immediately to the north of Gandhāra or with Gandhāra itself, Hi-tun with Parwān on the Panjshir, and Kao-fu with Kābul. Tu-mi should perhaps be substituted for Kao-fu, but the general localization is clear: the five principalities were outside the Ta-hia stronghold in Badakhshān, and in districts which are not very distant from the route which the Sakas must be considered to have followed on their way to Ki-pin. In such circumstances it is not even certain that the five principalities were peopled by the Ta-hia, or ruled over by them before the Yüe-chi conquest.

The third of them was Kuei-shuang, i.e. the Kushāṇa principality, apparently situated somewhere between Chitrāl and the Panjshir country.

We cannot say whether the Kuei-shuang had been settled there for a prolonged period when the events narrated in the Han Annals happened. The T'ang-shu<sup>5</sup> speaks of a Kuei-shuang-ni-kia in K'ang, midway between Samarkand and Bokhara, and though Professor Franke<sup>6</sup> does not think that the two names have anything to do with each other, it is not impossible that we have here an indication of the Kuei-shuang having come to their later habitat via Sogdiana, where Trogus, as we have seen, seems to speak of Scythian invaders, whom he calls Asiani.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Chap. 96 a, fol. 15 ro; cf. Specht, JA, VIII, ii, 1883, p. 323.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Chap. 118, fol. 11 vo.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Chavannes, Toung Pao, II, viii, p. 1893. 
<sup>4</sup> Ērānšahr, pp. 242 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Cf. Chavannes, Documents sur les Tou-kine (Turcs) occidentaux, St-Pétersbourg, 1903, p. 145. <sup>6</sup> Beiträge, p. 67<sup>2</sup>.

We have seen that some indications exist which seem to show that the Kushāṇas Ta-hia and In order to ascertain whether they belonged to the Ta-hia people, we Tocharians. shall have to examine what we know about the ethnic or linguistic affinities of the Ta-hia.

It has sometimes 1 been assumed that the Ta-hia were the Dahae of classical literature. But there is nothing to show that the Dahae were ever settled in the Ta-hia country.

Most scholars seem to have accepted Marquart's identification? of Ta-hia with Tu-ho-lo, a designation which is, for the first time, met with in the history of the Northern Wei (A. D. 386-556) as denoting a western people on and beyond the Oxus, and about which we read in the T'ang-shu: 3 'It is to the west of the Ts'ung-ling (Pamir) and to the south of the river Wu-hu (Oxus). It is the old territory of the Ta-hia.

According to Karlgren 4 the T'ang pronunciation of Ta-hia was t'āi (or d'āi)-ya, and that of Tu-ho-lo tuo-xuâ-lâ. Both names have a guttural fricative and not h as the second consonant, and Marquart has explained the short form Ta-hia by reference to a well-known tendency in old Chinese accounts to avoid using more than two characters in the rendering of foreign names, while Haloun thinks it possible that the name of the Tocharians was identified with an older Chinese designation Ta-hia.

There are some notices in old Chinese sources which seem to speak of a Ta-hia in Old north-western Kan-su, on the south-eastern border of Gobi. Professor Franke tried to Tu-ho-lo. establish the identity of these Ta-hia with the people conquered by the Yüe-chi, but Chavannes 7 may be right in thinking that they have nothing to do with each other.

The strongest argument in favour of Professor Franke's theory is the reference to an ancient Tu-ho-lo four marches east of Niya in Chinese Turkestan, at the present Endere, by Hüan-tsang. Sir Aurel Stein has, however, shown excellent reasons for doubting that such an ancient Tu-ho-lo has ever existed.8 Just as the people of the present day speak of the ruins of Chinese Turkestan as 'the Kalmaks' houses', or 'township of the old Chinese', &c., thus Hüan-tsang's guides may have spoken of 'Old Tu-ho-lo', because the designation Tu-ho-lo had come to be used about the empire of the Yüe-chi and their successors, the rulers of the so-called Tocharistan, and ancient remains were vaguely ascribed to their times.

The Ta-hia were the old inhabitants of the Yüe-chi empire, and their name continued to be used also after the Yüe-chi conquest, just as classical authors speak of the Tocharians.

We can thus provisionally abstract from the accounts of an old Ta-hia or Tu-ho-lo settlement in Chinese Turkestan or even farther east. The only place where we are sure that this people was settled in ancient times is the country to the south of the Oxus. And we can assume that it was the same people which classical authors called Tocharian.

Now the modern exploration of Chinese Turkestan has brought to light numerous Tocharian fragments and documents written in an Indo-European language, which we have every language. reason for bringing into connexion with the Tocharians.

There are two dialects, one of which, usually designated B, was used as the language of administration in Kuchi in the north-east of Chinese Turkestan in the seventh

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. O. Schrader, Reallexikon der Indogermanischen Altertumskunde, 2. Auflage, sub voce <sup>2</sup> Ērānšahr, pp. 199 ff. Tocharer.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Chap. CCXXI b, fol. 4 v°; cf. Chavannes, Documents, p. 155.

<sup>4</sup> Nos. 952, 136; 1187, 93, 569.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Gustav Haloun, Seit wann kannten die Chinesen die Tocharer oder Indogermanen überhaupt I. 6 Ostasiatische Zeitschrift, viii, pp. 117 ff. Leipzig, 1926.

Les mémoires historiques de Sse Ma Ts'ien, ii, p. 148.

Ārśi.

century A.D., and was also probably spoken in Turfan, while the other, dialect A, is used in Buddhist texts and evidently belongs to Tocharistan, the western country of the Ta-hia. Some of these texts have been further translated into Uigur, and such translations are occasionally stated to have been made from the toxri language, and toxri cannot be anything else than Tocharian. The dialect A can accordingly be characterized as the literary language of the Tocharians.

It is an Indo-European form of speech, but does not belong to the Aryan group and has nothing to do with Sakish or any other Iranian tongue.

Now there is one peculiarity about this language. The designation toxri is only used about it in Uigur translations. In the texts themselves the language is designated as ārši kanta, the Ārši tongue.<sup>3</sup>

F. W. K. Müller has shown that this ārśi can very well be a rendering of the same word which Strabo gives in the form "Aoioi, and from which the adjective Asiani is evidently derived. We thus again arrive at the conclusion that the Asiani, the rulers of the Tochari, were identified with their subjects, just as was the case with the Yüe-chi and the Ta-hia, and it seems necessary to infer that the Arśi, the "Aoioi, the Asiani must be identified with the Yüe-chi, the toxri, Tocharians, with the Ta-hia, as has already been indicated above.

But now the question arises: is this ārśi-toxri language originally the language of the Aoioi, i.e. the Yüe-chi, or that of the Tocharians? In the former case the Ārśis brought their language to the Tocharians, who then gradually adopted the speech of their conquerors. In the latter we should have to state that the Tocharian language was renamed after the kings, their new rulers, much in the same way as French and Russian have got their names.

In favour of the former explanation it may be urged that the Tocharian language does not seem to possess guttural fricatives, and that the ethnic name is therefore apparently in disaccord with the laws of the language. The name Tocharian, toxri, seems to be more in its place with Iranians, and we might draw the inference that the Tocharians were Iranians, who had abandoned their old language in favour of their non-Iranian conquerors. Moreover, the existence of a dialect of the same language in and near Kuchi might be taken as an indication of the way by which the language has come to the Tocharians. We have no traces of any material change in the population of Kuchi from the time when it first emerges into the light of history and down to the Turkish conquest, while there has evidently been considerable movement in and about Bactria. It therefore seems possible to assume that the arsi-toxri language originally was the speech of the Ārśi or Aria, i. e. of the Yüe-chi.

The name Yüe-chï. It has also been thought possible to find support for this opinion in the Chinese name Yüe-chï, which has been much discussed.

The first of the two signs with which it is written is pronounced  $\ddot{u}e$  in Mandarin,  $\ddot{u}t$  in Cantonese,  $\ddot{n}et$  in Hakka, getsu or guatsu in Sino-Japanese, ngoat,  $ng\ddot{u}et$  in Anamese,  $u\ddot{o}l$  (written nguer) in Korean, and had the sound  $ng\ddot{u}wt$  in the T'ang period. In transliterating Indian words it is used to render vi,  $\ddot{u}r$ , and o.5 The final t of the T'ang form may further represent an r in the original.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Lévi, JA, XI, ii, 1913, pp. 311 ff.

<sup>,&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. E. Sieg and W. Siegling, *Tocharische Sprachreste*, Berlin and Leipzig, 1921, B. I, pp. iii ff., with references.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Sieg, SBAW, 1918, pp. 560 ff. <sup>4</sup> SBAW, 1918, pp. 566 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Cf. Karlgren, no. 1347; Franke, Beiträge, pp. 21 ff.; Ostasiatische Zeitschrift, vi, pp. 83 ff.; Staël Holstein, SBAW, 1914, pp. 643 ff.; F. W. K. Müller, SBAW, 1918, pp. 566 ff.

<sup>6</sup> Cf. Hirth, Journal of the China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1886, p. 220.

The second sign 1 sounds shi in Mandarin, shi in Cantonese, si in Sino-Japanese, and was a zig in the T'ang period.

Klaproth has stated 2 that we sometimes find the second sign written ti, 3 Cantonese tai, Tang tiei. He would therefore read the whole name as yie-ti and identify this with the Yetes of Dzungaria and the Ili country, while other scholars, who accepted his reading, thought of the Getae and Massagetae.

Franke has shown that Klaproth's reading cannot be accepted, but drew attention to a statement in Chinese commentaries to the effect that shi in this name should be pronounced as the sign which means 'branch', Mandarin tsi, Cantonese tsi, T'ang period tsie. He thinks that this pronunciation represents an attempt at preserving the final t of the first part of the name, so that it is not excluded that we have to do with 'the people of the Yet or Get', which may have something to do with the Getae and Massagetae. Yüe-chi might, he says, be a comprehensive term, something parallel to the denominations Scythian and Getae, denoting the peoples to the north and east of Pontus Euxinus and the Caspian Sea, from Haemus to Thracia and far into Central Asia. Marquart starts from a pronunciation get-ti and compares this with the Hagiarol of Strabo, which he corrects to Fagiarol and considers as a simple variant of Agion and of Ptolemy's Idation.

Baron A. von Staël Holstein infers a pronunciation kurshi or gurshi and identifies this with kushi, the simple form of the name of the Kushāṇas. A. Herrmann accepts this identification, reading the Chinese name guat-si.

Professor Charpentier sees in Yüe-chi, which might be translated as 'the moon-clan', the rendering of an unknown name, which was once used to denote the people called Tocharian by classical authors and Tu-ho-lo by the Chinese.

F. W. K. Müller maintains that Yiv-chi is probably a rendering of the same word which we have learnt to know in the form  $\bar{a}rsi$  as a designation of the language of the Tocharians, and Franke has subsequently accepted this explanation.

It is impossible for a non-sinologist to weigh these opinions against each other. Professor Pelliot 9 is, however, of opinion that none of the suggested forms is probable in the Han period, and Professor Karlgren has been good enough to point out to me:

- (1) That the initial ng-, in later times often weakened and disappearing, was quite strong and important in ancient times and cannot simply be overlooked in our identifications. It is true that the T'ang time ng- sometimes transcribes words without initial guttural, but then these latter begin with a labial sound (ng(i)w- for foreign u-, w-, v-), and the whole of ngiw- cannot reasonably be simply skipped (ngiw)vt = ar(si), with abstraction from both the guttural ng- and the labial -w- (the medial -i- is generally of no account in the transcriptions). ng- may stand for foreign ng- or g-, probably the latter (Chinese has only aspirated g', and therefore ng- had to serve for ordinary g-), and we have to expect a gw- or a g- or a w- in the foreign word transcribed.
- (2) The principal vowel of the word in pre-Christian time is impossible to determine. It was probably an a or an o.
- (3) The final -t was decidedly a -t in pre-Christian time, not an -r, as in certain northern dialects in T'ang time (whence Korean nguer). The reasons for this statement are given by Professor Karlgren, JRAS, 1928, pp. 789 ff. Thus the approximate

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Karlgren, no. 879.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Karlgren, no. 984.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Erānšahr, p. 206.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> ZDMG, 71, 1917, p. 375.

<sup>9</sup> BEFEO, v, 1905, p. 443.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Tableaux historiques, pp. 287 ff.

<sup>4</sup> Karlgren, no. 1212.

<sup>6</sup> l. c., sub voce Sacaraucae.

<sup>8</sup> Ostasiatische Zeitschrift, vi, pp. 83 ff.

transcription value of the first syllable would be (n)gwat or (n)gwat, pointing to a foreign gwat, gwat, or gat, got, or gut, or wat, wot, or ut.

(4) Franke is certainly right in pointing out that the second syllable has to be read, according to the ancient phonetic gloss, like chi, 'branch', T'ang time tsie. This, however, comes from an older t'ia (t' = palatal explosive, not affricative; cf. Karlgren, p. 25), and can transcribe a foreign ti (or possibly ti?), or, of course, tia (tia?), but certainly not tia in tial articles.

No certain inference can, accordingly, be drawn from the Chinese name, and we can only say with some confidence that the  $\bar{a}r\dot{s}i$ , the "Aoso, or Asiani were in reality the Yüe-chi, but that the designations themselves can hardly be identified.

Yüe-chi and Tocharian language.

The reasons for assuming that the ārśi-toxri language was brought to Tocharistan by the Yüe-chi from Chinese Turkestan and for seeing in the Kuchi dialect remnants of the ancient speech of the conquerors are hardly conclusive. The Chinese are absolutely unaware of any connexion between the Yüe-chi and the population of Kuchi. The same annals which contain the account of the wanderings and conquests of the Yüe-chi have much to say about the history of Kuchi, but the Yüe-chi are always mentioned as a different people and sometimes as the enemies of the Kuchians.

Moreover we have not sufficient reason for assuming that the Tocharians had been settled for a very long time to the south of the Oxus, when the Yüe-chï conquered them. We have seen above, p. xxi, that Strabo speaks of the Tocharians as one of the nomadic tribes who made an end to the Greek dominion in Bactria. In the Chinese accounts, on the other hand, the Tocharians are described as settled in towns and engaged in trade. It is perhaps possible to reconcile these varying statements by assuming that the Tocharians were originally immigrants from Chinese Turkestan, in which case the Kuchi and Turfan settlements might indicate the localities from which they had come, localities where the Yüe-chï had never been settled.<sup>1</sup>

This Tocharian immigration into the Oxus country must have happened before the Yüe-chi exodus, i.e. they must have lived for some time in the neighbourhood of Iranian tribes. And if the guttural fricative in their name is really unwarranted in their language, the form of the name taken over by the Chinese as by classical authors may have been coined by their neighbours.

It seems to me that this is a much more likely explanation than to assume that the Tocharians were originally an Iranian tribe, which was conquered by non-Iranians from Turkestan, the Yüe-chï, and adopted their language. There can hardly be any doubt about the ethnic and linguistic unity of the Little and the Great Yüe-chï. And in the country of the former we have no traces of the Tocharian language, but, as already remarked, direct evidence to the effect that an Iranian tongue, practically identical with the speech of the Kushāṇas, was used as a vernacular, at least since the first centuries of the Christian era. The natural inference is that the Little Yüe-chï as well as the Great Yüe-chï were Iranians, and that the Tocharian language was originally spoken by the Tocharians, the subjects of the Great Yüe-chï in the Oxus country, who had perhaps formerly been settled in the northern oases of Chinese Turkestan, while the old home of the Yüe-chï was farther to the east. When the Chinese first heard about the Ta-hia,

<sup>·</sup>¹ Some scholars have thought it possible to draw a similar conclusion from the association of the Tocharians with eastern peoples in later classical texts (Dionysius Periegeta 752: καὶ Τόχαροι Φροῦνοι τε καὶ ἔθνεα βάρβαρα Σηρῶν; Pliny, Nat. Hist. vi. 55 'ab Attacoris gentes Thuni et Focari,' i. e. probably 'Funi et Thocari', where Φροῦνοι, Funi, have been explained as meaning the Huns, Hiung-nu) and from the notice in the Mahābhārata, II. 1850 ff., about the Tukhāras bringing furs, iron, and silk to Yudhishthira.

i.e. the Tocharians, they were mentioned in connexion with the Yüe-chi, of whom the Chinese had previous knowledge, and the name of the people was probably transmitted through them. In this connexion it is also worth remembering that the designation toxri of the language is found in Uigur texts, i. e. the Uigurs used a name known in the east, while the Tocharians themselves speak of the language as Ārśi, i. e. perhaps the speech of the "Aoioi, their masters.

A priori it is also most probable that the Yüe-chi conquerors in Tocharistan used the language of their subjects, just as the Kushāṇas did in India. The subjects were no doubt more numerous than the conquerors, and their whole administration seems to a large extent to have been continued by them without material change.1

If toxri is the old language of the Tocharians, and Arsi is the same word which The classical authors render as "Aoioi, the conquerors of the Tocharians, we must probably designation draw the inference that the designation draw the inference that the designation arsi was borrowed by the Tocharians from their rulers. In that case the word arsi must be a loanword in Tocharian.

The comparison of arsi and Aoun is not, of course, quite certain. It seems a priori difficult to explain the absence of r in the Greek form. The connexion between Across and Asiani, on the other hand, cannot be doubted: the latter is a regular adjective formed from the former by adding the suffix  $\tilde{a}na$ .

Now it may be asked whether it is possible to trace any connexion between this adjective and the word erjhuna, alysanai mentioned above in connexion with the first Kushāņa ruler of India.

The Saka word alysanai shows some peculiar features. I have already mentioned that it seems to have had the form arysānai, i. e. arzānai in older times. The later form eysānai now shows two things: in the first place that the compound rys, lys had a tendency to become ys, i. e. the r must have been weakly sounded. And moreover the e seems to show that the initial had become long and that there was a y after the voiced For there is a rule in Saka according to which a y causes a preceding a to become  $\bar{\imath}$ and  $\bar{a}$  to become  $\bar{e}$ ; cf.  $k\bar{i}ntha$  from kanthya, 'in the town';  $b\bar{e}da$  from  $b\bar{a}dya$ , 'at the time'. We can thus infer the existence of an adjective arzyanai, or shorter arzyani, and from this a simpler  $\bar{a}^r z y i$ , which in Sakish must become  $\bar{a}^r z i .^3$ 

Now such a word, with the base  $\bar{a}^r zya$ , would naturally be borrowed by the Greeks as asio, while the Tocharians, whose literary texts belong to a period when the word had become  $\bar{a}^r \dot{z}i$  in Sakish, could only borrow it in the form  $\bar{a}r\dot{s}i$ , because there were no voiced sibilants in their language.

If these deductions are accepted, the necessary conclusions are that the Tocharians were an Indo-European tribe, but not Aryans, while the Yüe-chi were Iranians, and, to judge from their language and their later history, Sakas. And just as the Sakamurundas or Sai-wang were designated as such because their chiefs used the title murunda, in the same way the Yüe-chi might be called Asioi, because their leaders were designated as such. And to judge from the probable connexion with Greek ἀρχός, dρχων, this word simply means 'leader', 'chief'.

Now we have seen that the Kushāṇas were almost certainly Iranians. They cannot, The accordingly, have been Tocharians, but must be related to the Yüe-chi, i. e. those Sakas, Sakas, whose chiefs were designated as "Aow, Asiani, arsi, alysanai. It is in good accordance with this view that the great Kushāṇa Kanishka seems to have started on his career in the shotan country, where we have every reason for locating some of the Little Yue-chi. On the other hand, the Kuei-shuang principality seems to have existed before the

<sup>1</sup> Cf. Chavannes, Toung Pao, II, viii, p. 1872.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Leumann, Zur nordarischen Sprache und Literatur, p. 71. <sup>3</sup> Leumann, l. c., p. 72.

Yüe-chi conquest of the Ta-hia country was completed. It is therefore probable that the family or clan (kula) of the Kushāṇas had a comparatively large distribution among the Sakas, and some of them may have been with the Sai-wang who went to Ki-pin some time before 160 B.C.

Foundation of Kushāņa empire.

The Kuei-shuang principality was made the starting-point of a development which led to the establishment of a large empire in India and the Indian borderlands.

The passage in the Hou Han-shu quoted above (p. lvi), which speaks about how the Yüe-chi divided the Ta-hia kingdom between five hi-hou, continues as follows: 'More than a hundred years after this the hi-hou of Kuei-shuang, called K'iu-tsiu-k'io, attacked the four other hi-hou; he styled himself king; the name of his kingdom was Kuei-shuang. He invaded An-si and seized the territory of Kao-fu; moreover he triumphed over Pu-ta and Ki-pin and entirely possessed those kingdoms. K'iu-tsiu-k'io died more than eighty years old. His son Yen-kao-chen became king in his stead. He again conquered T'ien-chu and appointed a general there for the administration. From this moment the Yüe-chi became extremely powerful. In all the kingdoms they were spoken of as "King of Kuei-shuang", but the Han stuck to their old designation and called them Ta Yüe-chi.'

As shown by Marquart, both the rulers mentioned in this passage can be identified. K'iu-tsiu-k'io 2 was still in the T'ang period pronounced k'izu-dz'izu kivp and is evidently identical with the Kushāṇa Kujū(la) Kapa, known from coins, and Yen-kao-chen, his son, is the Wima Kathphiśa (or Kaphthiśa) of coins, whose name occurs in a Kharoshṭhī inscription of the year 187 in the form Uvima Kavthisa.

Kujūla Kadphises. K'iu-tsiu-k'io or Kujūla Kadphises thus started on his career by bringing all the neighbouring principalities under his rule, and this happened 'more than hundred years after' the events narrated in the preceding passage, which runs: 'formerly the Yüe-chï were conquered by the Hiung-nu; they transferred themselves to the Ta-hia and divided that kingdom between five hi-hou.' Because the Yüe-chï are in this very passage stated to have their capital at Lan-shī, we may infer that the hundred years are reckoned from some date subsequent to Chang K'ien's visit, when the Yüe-chī capital was still to the north of the Oxus. On the other hand, the Hou Han-shu deals with the events that happened in and after the period Kien-wu (A. D. 25-55), and Kujūla Kadphises' conquest cannot, therefore, have taken place before the year A. D. 25. If Kujūla Kadphises is the same person which is mentioned in the Takht-i-Bāhī inscription of the year 103, i.e. probably A. D. 19, he had not then reduced the four other hi-hou, and it is even possible that he had not yet risen to the rank of hi-hou. In such circumstances the designation erjhuṇa characterizing him in the inscription is quite intelligible, for the corresponding Saka word alysānai translates the Indian kumāra, 'young man', 'prince'.

Kujūla Kadphises' conquests. After having reduced the other hi-hou Kujūla Kadphises is stated to have invaded An-si. An-si is, as we have seen, the usual Chinese name for Parthia. But here we cannot think of the Parthian empire of Ctesiphon. We have already seen, however, that Parthian rulers had shortly before the beginning of our era established themselves in the Indian borderlands and were menacing the Greek dominion in Kābul. Now the immediate result of the invasion of An-si is stated to be the seizure of Kao-fu, i. e. Kābul, and we necessarily infer that An-si must mean the Parthian dynasty in the east, to which Guduvhara belonged.

Most scholars are apparently now agreed that it was the Parthians who made an

Kujūla Kadphises and Hermaeus.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Ērānšahr, pp. 208 f. <sup>2</sup> Karlgren, nos. 406, 252, 491.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> T'ang pronunciation jäm-kåu-t'jën, Karlgren, nos. 247, 308, and 1191.

end to the Greek power in Kābul.1 The last Greek king of Kābul was Hermaeus. His coins bear different legends, but he is usually designated as 'King Saviour', βασιλεθς σωτήρ, maharaja tratara. One group, however, adds the syllable συ after σωτήρος, at the same time mutilating this word to  $\sigma\tau\eta\rho\sigma$ . The reverse has either the legend maharajasa mahatasa Heramayasa or maharajasa rajaxajasa mahatasa Heramayasa, but on some of them, with the bust of Hermaeus on the obverse, we find the reverse legend Kujula Kasasa Kushana yavugasa dhramathidasa. On some of these coins the obverse legend is corrupt, but apparently intended to run Κορσανο (or Κορανο) Κοζουλο Καδφισου. Sir John Marshall found some new specimens of this group at Sirkap, where also the Kharoshthī legend is corrupt. On one of them it seems, however, possible to read [Ku] jula Kara [dha]rmathi.

On other coins 2 the king's bust is different, but the Greek legend seems to be the same, while the reverse apparently runs Kuyula Kaüsa Kushaņasa.

In this connexion we must also consider another type, showing on the obverse a royal head resembling that of Augustus in his last years, with the legend Xopav ou facou Kοζολα Καδαφες. On the reverse is a king seated on a chair, and the Kharoshthī legend Khushanasa yaüasa Kuyula Kaphsasa sachadhramathitasa. And, finally, we have coins with a seated person, and a corrupt legend of which the words Xopav συ can apparently be read on the obverse, and a god, which has usually been identified with Zeus, and a Kharoshthī legend which seems to run Khushanasa . . Kuyula Kadaphasa on the reverse.

These coins seem to bear witness to a certain connexion between Hermaeus and Kujūla Kadphises, who seem, for some time, to have ruled conjointly.

M. Senart<sup>3</sup> has discussed this question and drawn attention to the fact that the word tratarasa, which usually occurs on the reverse of Hermaeus' coins, is absent where the obverse shows the corrupt Greek legend στηρος συ. This coincidence precludes, he thinks, the idea of στηρος συ being simply a corruption of σωτήρος. Since now the coins of Kujūla Kadphises are the oldest Indian coins where we find an ethnic designation, he thinks it possible that συ has a similar meaning and may stand for Σύρου, of the Syrian, supposing that Syria had, for those far-off Greeks, come to stand as the last representative of the independent Greek power. He compares the su occurring in the Kharoshthī legend, su Theüdamasa, on an engraved stone from Bajaur.

Other explanations of the corrupt ornpos ou have been given by Professor Rapson, who thinks that it may be a rendering of sterasya, Skr. sthavirasya, 'of the elder', while xopavov may stand for kushanasya; Professor Thomas, who suggests the possibility of seeing in συ a genitive suffix corresponding to Tocharian tse; Professor Kirste, who sees in the συ of στηρος συ an abbreviation of σύμβολου, and Baron Staël Holstein, who takes συ to be the genitive of a word corresponding to Persian shāh, comparing the forms Σαπωρης, 'Shāhpūr', where sh is rendered as  $\sigma$ , and  $\sigma \alpha \tau \rho \alpha \pi \nu$   $Z \epsilon \iota \omega \nu \nu \sigma \sigma \nu$ , where  $\nu$  stands for the genitive suffix.

The explanation of συ as an abbreviation of σύμβολον is the only one which does not lead to the assumption of a clumsy or mistaken orthography. But the position of the syllable might be intelligible in the seal-legend su Theüdamasa, where we have Kharoshthī letters, but hardly in βασιλεως στηρος συ Ερμαιου or χοραν συ ζαοου Κοζολα Καδαφες. At least we should have to assume that the abbreviation had been mechanically taken over from other legends. But as a matter of fact we do not know of any other instance of its use on Indian soil

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Justin, xli. 6, 3 'Bactriani . . . ad postremum ab invalidioribus Parthis velut exsangues oppressi sunt'; Thomas, JRAS, 1906, pp. 193 f.; Rapson, Cambridge History of India, i, pp. 561 f. <sup>3</sup> JA, vIII, xiii, 1889, pp. 364 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Smith, Catalogue, p. 66, no. 5.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> JRAS, 1913, p. 632<sup>1</sup>.

<sup>4</sup> JRAS, 1897, pp. 319 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> SWAW, 182, 2, 1917, pp. 45 f., 59 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> JRAS, 1914, pp. 82 f.

It seems to me that the syllable must have been felt to be of some importance. And it is of interest that the corresponding Kharoshṭhī legend sometimes has the imperial title rajaraja. I think that this may be significant. If we further bear in mind that Hermaeus is on some of these coins associated with Kujūla Kadphises, who was a Kushāṇa, we become inclined to think that the addition of the syllable  $\sigma v$  bears witness to an alliance between Hermaeus and Kujūla Kadphises, through which the former tried to strengthen his position and make himself independent of the Parthian suzerains, who had oppressed him. In that case, however,  $\sigma v$  must evidently be a Kushāṇa title, and it becomes natural to think of the word shau used by Kanishka and his successors and also by Iranian rulers in Chinese Turkestan.

I am therefore inclined to interpret these coin-legends as follows. When Kujūla Kadphises invaded An-si, i.e. the Parthian realm in and near Kābul, Hermaeus entered into an alliance with him and perhaps actually supported him. But the Kushāṇa ruler did not long leave him free to enjoy his new independence. He had to share the government with him, and was soon entirely replaced by Kujūla, about whom the Chinese annals state that he seized Kao-fu, i. e. Kābul. To begin with he retained the bust of Hermaeus, but later on he replaced it, and now also began to introduce the syllable  $\sigma v$  in his legends.

It is impossible to settle the chronology, but these events cannot have taken place before Kujūla Kadphises had risen to the rank of hi-hou, because the title yavuga is used on the coins he struck conjointly with Hermaeus, and we may infer from the statement of Fan Ye that this happened some time after A.D. 25.

Further conquests.

After the conquest of Kao-su K'iu-tsiu-k'io is said to have triumphed over Pu-ta and Ki-pin and to have brought these kingdoms entirely under his sway.

Pu-ta has not been identified. Franke and Marquart compare Πακτυική, which they locate to the north of Arachosia, while Chavannes thinks it possible that the city of Balkh is meant. It seems probable that Pu-ta cannot have been too distant from Kābul and Ki-pin, which must comprise parts of the Panjāb. The stratification at Taxila shows, as already remarked, that there Kadphises succeeded the Guduvhara dynasty, and his conquests brought the Kushāṇa empire at least so far towards the east.

In corroboration of the Chinese accounts we have a Kharoshṭhī inscription of the year 122, i. e. according to my chronology A.D. 38, found at Panjtār on the Indus, and mentioning a maharaya Gushaṇa, and another record from Taxila of the year 136, i. e. A.D. 52, mentioning a maharaja rajatiraja devaputra Khushaṇa. We have seen that the Guduvhara dynasty still seems to have held sway at Taxila about A.D. 44, and the two inscriptions therefore seem to bear witness to the gradual growth of the Kushāṇa empire.

There are further some coins which must be mentioned in this connexion.

At Sirkap Sir John Marshall <sup>6</sup> found a new type, with the bust of a king 'resembling Wima Kadphises' and a corrupt Greek legend on the obverse, while the reverse shows a Nike and the Kharoshthī legend maharajasa rajatirajasa Khushanasa yavugasa. Another group of coins have on the obverse a humped bull and an illegible Greek legend, and, on the reverse, a two-humped Bactrian camel and a Kharoshthī text with slightly varying wording: maharajasa rajatirajasa Kuyula Kaphasa, maharajasa mahatasa

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Pronounced Puk-d'ât in the T'ang period; cf. Karlgren, nos. 760, 956.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Beiträge, p. 99<sup>1</sup>.

<sup>3</sup> Untersuchungen zur Geschichte von Eran, ii, pp. 175 f.

<sup>4</sup> Toung Pao, II, vii, pp. 513 f., viii, p. 1913.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> ASIAR, 1912-13, pp. 44, 51.

Kushana Kuyula Kaphasa, maharayasa rayarayasa devaputrasa Kuyula Kara Kaphsasa, and maharayasa rayatirayasa Kuyula Kara Kapasa.

In my opinion all these records belong to the reign of Kujūla Kadphises. For there does not seem to be any reason for discrediting the Chinese account according to which there were only two Kadphises kings, father and son, of whom the first was more than eighty years old at his death. And since the second Kadphises seems to have been ruling in the year 187, he can scarcely have succeeded his octogenarian father as early as the year 136.

The evidence of the coins and inscriptions has, however, been interpreted in a different way.

Professor Rapson <sup>1</sup> considers Kujūla Kara Kadphises (Kuyula Kara Kapa, &c.) to be different from Kujūla Kadphises, and states that he 'scems to have succeeded the satrap Zeionises in the kingdom of Pushkalāvatī, and he may have been contemporary with Wima Kadphises'. It seems to me that the imperial title used on his coins precludes the idea of his having been a subordinate ruler. And the Chinese annals only know two old Kushāṇas with imperial power. I therefore think that the addition kara cannot prevent us from ascribing these coins to Kadphises I. We do not know anything about the signification of this kara. I have mentioned above that a Sirkap coin of Kadphises I, showing the bust of Hermaeus on the obverse, seems to have the Kharoshṭhī legend. . jula kara dharmathi,² and here there cannot be the question of another person than Kujūla Kadphises. Kara may be a title, of a similar kind as the unexplained kāla preceding the name Kushanasena in the Niya document, no. 399, where the comparison with ogu Kushanasena in nos. 136, 193, 198, gušura Kushanasena in no. 320, &c., makes us inclined to think of a title. Moreover, the word kara is sometimes absent from the coins in question.<sup>3</sup>

Also the Sirkap coins with a bust 'resembling Wima Kadphises' have been disassociated from Kujūla Kadphises and ascribed to his successor. In his description of them Sir John Marshall, who does not feel confident about their connexion with Wima Kadphises, draws attention to the simultaneous use of the titles yavuga and maharaja rajatiraja, which he thinks throws some doubt on the current view that the title yavuga was replaced by the imperial designation maharaja rajatiraja after the conquest of India. But it seems possible to explain the coin-legend in a slightly different way. Kujūla Kadphises started on his career as a yavuga, and the use of the old title on the coins seems to me to be intentional, to bear witness to a feeling of pride at the success which led him from such beginnings to the position of emperor and master of the famous town of Taxila.

To judge from the published plate and from casts, which I owe to the courtesy of Sir John Marshall, the similarity of the bust on the obverse to that of Wima Kadphises is not, moreover, striking.

Professor Rapson states that 'most of the coins of Kujūla Kadphises show clearly both by their types and their fabric that they were struck in the Kābul valley'. It seems natural to assume that the Sirkap coins were struck after the conquest of Taxila, partly in imitation of the coins of the Guduvhara dynasty, where royal busts are a common feature on the obverse.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Cambridge History of India, i, p. 5821; cf. Indian Coins, p. 17.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See the reproduction, ASIAR, 1912-13, p. 52, no. 49.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cunningham, Numismatic Chronicle, 3rd series, xii, 1892, pp. 65 f.

<sup>4</sup> Cambridge History of India, i, p. 584.

Moreover, we have not the slightest reason for supposing that the title maharaja (rajatiraja) Khushana was ever used by Wima Kadphises. It reminds us of the remark in the Hou Han-shu that K'iu-tsiu-k'io assumed the title 'king', the name of his kingdom being Kuei-shuang, and Sir John Marshall is evidently right in saying 1 that 'it would be natural for the first emperor of the dynasty to be styled "the Kushan Emperor" without any further appellation, while it would be equally natural for his successors to be distinguished from him by the addition of their individual names'.

Against ascribing the Taxila inscription of the year 136 to Kujūla Kadphises it has been urged that the silver scroll on which it is written bears the monogram  $\frac{1}{6}$ , which is characteristic of the coins of Wima Kadphises. Sir John has, however, drawn attention to the fact that it is also found on coins of Kujūla Kara Kadphises.

Reconstruction of Kujūla Kadphises' history.

For the reconstruction of the history of the first Kushāṇa ruler we may accordingly use the following dates. To judge from the introduction to the Hou Han-shu the reduction of the four hi-hou can hardly have taken place before A.D. 25. In an inscription of the year 103, i. e. according to my chronology A.D. 19, Kujūla Kadphises is mentioned as erjhuṇa, i. e. a junior member of the ruling caste or clan, at a time when twenty-six years had passed after the establishment of an era by a Parthian ruler, presumably Azes, and when Azes' successor, Guduvhara, was on the throne.

Nineteen years afterwards, in the year 122, corresponding to A.D. 38, we find him, as the maharaya Gushaṇa, in the inscription from Panjtār in the Peshāwar district. The invasion of An-si, the seizure of Kao-fu, and the attack on Pu-ta and Ki-pin must be dated in this interval and, to all appearances, after A.D. 25. The conquest of Ki-pin cannot, however, have been completed. For we have seen that the Parthian dynasty seems to have been in power in Taxila in A.D. 44. And since the Hou Han-shu limits K'iu-tsiu-k'io's conquests to Ki-pin in the east, we must take Taxila in this connexion to belong to Ki-pin.

After further fourteen years, in the year 136 corresponding to A.D. 52, Taxila has been reduced and the former *hi-hou* now meets us as the great king, the King of Kings: his conquests have been completed, the Kushāṇa empire has been established.

We do not know how long time after the conquest of Taxila the inscription of the year 136 was executed. A priori it seems likely that it belongs to the first years of Kushāna rule there.

Kujūla Kadphises' conquest of Ki-pin can be characterized as a re-establishment of the previous Saka dominion in that country, for the Kushāṇas seem to have acted as the heirs and successors of the Sakas in India.<sup>3</sup>

We have no further dates to guide us. If we assume, however, that the *erjhuṇa* Kapa was about twenty years old at the time of the Takht-i-Bāhī inscription, we should be entitled to conclude from the Hou Han-shu that his death must have taken place about sixty years later, i. e. about the year A.D. 79.

Yen-kaochen. According to the Hou Han-shu his son and successor was Yen-kao-chen, who can hardly have been a young man at his octogenarian father's death.

Of him we learn that he 'again' conquered T'ien-chu and appointed a general there for the administration.

T'ien-chu.

In the Cambridge History of India it has been taken for granted that Tien-chu

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JRAS, 1914, p. 978.

<sup>2</sup> It is also met with on coins of Zeionises.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Lüders, SBAW, 1913, p. 426. If M. Sylvain Lévi, JA, cciii, 1923, p. 52, is right in explaining the name Kadphises as 'the Kapiśa man', one might even infer that the Kushāṇa *hi-hou* was considered by his people as entitled to the throne of Kapiśa, i. e. in this connexion perhaps Ki-pin.

<sup>4</sup> Vol. i, p. 584.

denotes north-western India. The description of the country given in the Hou Han-shu, however, points to the Indus country, the ancient stronghold of the Saka empire in India. The text runs: 'The kingdom T'ien-chu is also called Shen-tu...¹ The kingdom is situated on the banks of a great river. The inhabitants mount on elephants in war; they are weaker than the Yüe-chï; they practise the religion of the Buddha; it has become a habit with them not to kill and not to fight. Parting from Kao-fu, which belongs to the Yüe-chï, and turning towards the south-west one comes to the western sea; in the east one comes to the kingdom of P'an-k'i;² all these countries form part of Shen-tu. Shen-tu has several hundred other towns (besides the capital); in each town a governor has been appointed; there are several tens of other kingdoms (besides the principal kingdom); in each kingdom there is a king. Though one observes some small differences in each of their kingdoms, they are nevertheless all called Shen-tu. At that time (i. e. probably when Pan Yung wrote, or towards A.D. 125) they were all dependent on the Yüe-chï; the Yüe-chï had killed the king and installed a general to govern the population.'

Though this description is somewhat obscure, because it also mentions countries to the west and east, it seems clear that the country conquered by Yen-kao-chen was situated on the Indus.

These districts were, as we have seen, under Parthian rule at the time of the Periplus, i. e. some time during the second half of the first century A.D. It is therefore possible that Yen-kao-chen effected his conquest by ousting the Parthians, though there may also have been other rulers.

At an earlier period the Indus country had been ruled by Sakas. Now we have seen that the Hou Han-shu states that Yen-kao-chen 'again' conquered T'ien-chu, and we get the impression that his conquest is described as a reconquest. It has been maintained that the word rendered as 'again' should, in this passage, be translated as 'further', 'in his turn', since there is no indication in the Hou Han-shu of a previous conquest, which was repeated by Yen-kao-chen. It is impossible for a non-Sinologist to judge about the merits of these translations.<sup>3</sup> But from the point of view of Indian history the meaning 'again' is thoroughly intelligible, since we know that there had been a previous conquest by kindred tribes, so that the Kushāṇas may here be considered as repeating the deeds of their Saka cousins.

And we have also seen that the Kālakāchāryakathānaka speaks of two Saka conquests. The Sakas of the Indus country conquered Surāshṭra and Mālava shortly before the beginning of the Vikrama era; they were ousted by Vikramāditya, but after a lapse of 135 years a new Saka came and re-established the Saka dominion.

There is such a remarkable similarity between the accounts of the Hou Han-shu and the Kālakāchāryakathānaka, that it seems natural to assume that they both contain the same indigenous tradition, so that they can be used to supplement and explain each other.

If we apply this principle, it follows that Wima Kadphises' conquest must have The later been effected about the year A.D. 78, and that he was the founder of the historical Śaka Śaka era. era, since the Kathānaka states that this reckoning was established in consequence of the second Saka conquest. Moreover, the Khalatse inscription of the year 187, i. e.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> T'ang pronunciation śičn-d'uok, Karlgren, nos. 869, 645.

T'ang pronunciation b'uân-k'ji, Karlgren, nos. 690, 319. According to Chavannes, Toung Pao, II, viii, p. 193<sup>1</sup>, perhaps in Annam or Burma.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Professor Karlgren kindly informs me that the text unmistakably has 'again, anew, extinguished T'ien-chu', and not 'in his turn'.

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### HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

A.D. 103-104, shows that Wima Kadphises was on the throne long after the beginning of the Saka era, which cannot, accordingly, have been instituted by Kanishka, his successor.

Under this supposition it also becomes intelligible that the era, which was intended to commemorate the re-establishment of Saka power, was later on known as the Śaka-kāla or Śakanripatikāla, and that it was only used in those districts where the Sakas, and their old era, had been replaced by national Indian rulers.

Yen-kaochen's governors. We learn from the Hou Han-shu that Yen-kao-chen appointed a general to rule in his stead. We have no indication to show that he himself resided in India, and the Khalatse inscription is the only one which mentions his name. His governors in T'ien-chu were no doubt the so-called Western Kshatrapas, with whom we shall have to occupy ourselves later on, though their rule did not comprise the districts where Kharoshṭhī inscriptions have been found.

Yen-kao-chen's empire was not, however, limited to T'ien-chu. He also inherited his father's kingdom in the north-west, and also there he seems to have appointed other persons to carry on the government. That such was the case must be inferred from numismatic evidence.

Wima Kadphises' coins. Wima Kadphises' coins are much more uniform than those of his father. They show, on the obverse, the king's head or figure, sitting or standing, and commonly Siva on the reverse. The obverse legend is βασιλεύς Οσημο Καδφισες on the gold, βασιλεύς βασιλέων μέγας Οσημο Καδφισης on the silver, and βασιλεύς βασιλέων σωτήρ μέγας Οσημο. Καδφισης on the copper coins. The corresponding Kharoshthī legend runs maharajasa rajadirajasa sarvalogisvarasa mahisvarasa Wima Kathphisasa tradarasa.

Form of his name.

The form of the king's name has been discussed by Professor Rapson.¹ The v of Wima has an apparent bottom line, which has led former scholars to read hima. Professor Rapson has shown that the same sign is of common use in the Kharoshthī documents from Chinese Turkestan. It looks almost like vra and evidently indicates a modified sound. The double oo of the Greek legend and the writing uvima in the Khalatse inscription lead us to think of something like the English w, while the apparent r-stroke reminds us of the use of a subscript r in several Kharoshthī letters where it seems probable that we have to do with a strongly fricative sound. We might therefore transliterate wh, but I shall, for practical purposes, write w.

The compound letter in Kathphisa consists of a ph, or sometimes p, above a St. Andrews' cross which reminds us of the usual sign th. It would be just as natural to read phth as thph, and the Khalatse inscription evidently has vth, which form might also be supported by the Chinese  $k\hat{a}u$ - $t^*i\delta n$ . I shall not, however, make any change in the usual rendering, which is, in its turn, supported by the Greek form  $Ka\delta pions$ .

We may note that the designation Kushāṇa is absent from these coins. The Chinese notice that it became usual, in all the kingdoms, to speak of the empire of the two Kadphises kings as that of the Kushāṇas cannot accordingly be taken at its face value. But we know that the designation Kushāṇa came to play a great role in historical records, notably in Armenian sources.<sup>2</sup>

Wima Kadphises' viceroy in the north. The title βασιλεὺς βασιλέων σωτὴρ μέγας used on Wima Kadphises' copper coins occurs, in a slightly different form, as βασιλεὺς βασιλεύων σωτὴρ μέγας, as the only legend, without the addition of a name, on numerous coins, which 'are exceedingly common all over the

<sup>1</sup> Actes du XIVe Congrès des Orientalistes, i, p. 219.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Marquart, Ērānšahr, p. 208.

Panjāb, as well as in Kandahār and in the Kābul valley' and 'are found as far eastward as Mathurā'.

Professor Rapson 2 rightly remarks that these coins show a symbol of the kind which is characteristic of Wima Kadphises, and that it cannot be doubted that they are related to him in point of time.

Mr. Whitehead 3 draws attention to the fact that these coins 'are found in extraordinary abundance, and over a wide stretch of country extending from Peshāwar to
Mathurā. These facts point to great power and a long reign, and are much in favour of
the supposition that we must look for Soter Megas amongst the most important of the
kings and satraps known to us, as it is very improbable that such a great potentate
would be nameless and unknown except from these coins. The style of the coins, which
are in copper only, and the absence of square forms, point to a period about the Kushān
conquest, so that Soter Megas was probably a contemporary of one of the two Kadphises'.
He also thinks that 'it is possible that these coins were struck by more than one ruler,
and that the differing types issued from distinct localities. Such rulers might have been
subordinate to a single suzerain'.

I accept these suggestions. The fact that these coins are only struck in copper can be interpreted to show that they were not issued by a suzerain king, but by a ruler acting for him. The Greek legend βασιλεύς βασιλεύων means 'king exercising royal power', 'ruling king'. Those who used the coins were not likely to observe the difference between βασιλεύς βασιλεύς βασιλεύς βασιλεύων, the less so because the reverse occasionally bears the Kharoshṭhī legend maharajasa rajatirajasa mahatasa tradarasa.

Certain types almost invariably exhibit in the field the Kharoshṭhī akshara vi. Though Mr. Whitehead is of another opinion, I think it probable that Cunningham was right in thinking that this vi was the initial of a name, and it seems probable that it denotes Wima Kadphises, as the suzerain of the ruler who styles himself Soter Megas.

Sir John Marshall is of opinion 4 that there was an interval between Wima Kadphises and Kanishka, and it is conceivable that the Soter Megas coins cover both the reign of Wima Kadphises and this interval, or part of it, so that the coins bearing the akshara vi chiefly represent the issues during Wima's reign.

After the death of Wima Kadphises there are indications to show that a disintegration of the Kushāṇa empire began to set in, similar to what took place after the demise of Moga. For the Taxila inscription of the year 191, i. e. A. D. 107-108, seems to show that Jihonika, i. e. Zeionises, the kshatrapa of Chukhsa, i. e. the Taxila country, was then the actual ruler of Taxila. The result seems to have been a decline of the Kushāṇa power, which after some time led the chiefs to make an attempt at strengthening their position in another direction, through an alliance with the Sakas in the Khotan country, as we shall see below.

In the new provinces added to the empire by Wima Kadphises the government was The apparently also carried on by a viceroy, and these viceroys are known as the Western Western Kshatrapas, who held sway in Surāshṭra and Mālava. It is in the records of these rulers that we find the first certain instance of the use of the historical Śaka era, which was, in my opinion, instituted by their suzerain Wima Kadphises.

The provinces ruled over by the Western Kshatrapas do not belong to the territory of Kharoshthi inscriptions. There are, however, some features in their records which

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Cunningham, Numismatic Chronicle, 3rd series, x, 1890, pp. 115f., with the addition: 'His Mathura coins were of local coinage, which is not met with elsewhere.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Indian Coins, pp. 16 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> p. 160<sup>2</sup>.

<sup>4</sup> ASIAR, 1912-13, p. 8.

seem to throw light on the further history of the Kushāņa empire in the north, and these features must be taken into consideration.

Professor Rapson is evidently right in holding that the oldest of the Western Kshatrapas, Bhūmaka and Nahapāna, were kshatrapas of the Kushāṇas. They are both designated as Kshaharātas, as was also the case with the Northern Kshatrapa Liaka Kusuluka. This designation as well as the use of Kharoshṭhī in their coin-legends in a country where Kharoshṭhī was not in common use point to the conclusion that they had come from the north-west.

Bhūmaka uses the titles kshaharāta kshatrapa, while Nahapāna is designated rājan kshaharāta on his coins, rājan kshaharāta kshatrapa in his inscription of the year 42, and rājan mahākshatrapa svāmin in his inscription of the year 46. The position of Nahapāna accordingly seems to have been more independent than that of Bhūmaka, and I have no hesitation in accepting Professor Rapson's view that Bhūmaka was the earliest known member of the dynasty.

The name Bhūmaka is certainly not good Sanskrit, but looks like a clumsy attempt at translating a foreign name.

Now we have another, somewhat later, Western Kshatrapa named Chashţana, of whom we possess inscriptions dated in the year 52, i. e. A.D. 130, where he is mentioned together with his grandson Rudradāman,<sup>2</sup> both being designated as rājan. Chashţana strikes coins both as kshatrapa and as mahākshatrapa, and also his son Jayadāman has issued coins as kshatrapa, but never seems to have risen to the rank of mahākshatrapa. Since Nahapāna occurs as kshatrapa in the year 42 and as mahākshatrapa in 46, and Chashṭana's grandson Rudradāman is mentioned as rājan in 52, Chashṭana cannot have become kshatrapa before the year 42 and mahākshatrapa before 46, and his son Jayadāman can only have held office for a very short period.

Chashtana's name has been explained by Professor Andreas as corresponding to Pashto chashtan, 'a master', and since Pashto is certainly in some way connected with the ancient Saka language of Eastern Turkestan, we may draw the conclusion that he was by race a Saka.

In his inscriptions and coin-legends Chashtana is characterized as the son of Ysamotika, and this Ysamotika is evidently derived from the Saka word ysama, 'earth'. I therefore agree with M. Sylvain Lévi 3 in identifying Ysamotika with Bhūmaka, seeing in the latter name a clumsy attempt at translating the Saka name into Sanskrit.

In the year 52 Chashtana ruled conjointly with his grandson Rudradāman and cannot, therefore, have been less than towards sixty years old. He was accordingly born about the beginning of the Śaka era, and his father Ysamotika-Bhūmaka must have held sway about that time, i. e. he must have been the first kshatrapa appointed after Wima Kadphises' reconquest.

At that time Western India, at all events Mālava, had been under national Indian rulers for a considerable period, and we easily understand the reasons which led to his name becoming Indianized as Bhūmaka. When Chashṭana came into power, the state of things was somewhat different.

The Sakas had been ruling for more than forty years. The Western Kshatrapas seem to have suffered defeat at the hands of the Andhras some time during the reign of Nahapāna, but they appear to have partly reasserted themselves under Chashţana. We

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> WK, pp. cv ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Ep. Ind., xvi, pp. 19 ff. I cannot accept Mr. Banerji's interpretation of these records.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> JA, xI, v, 1915, p. 191.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Cf. Rapson, WK, pp. cx, cxv.

may therefore look on Chashtana's use of the indigenous Saka form of his father's name as a sign of increased Saka self-assertion.

Now there is one detail which points in another direction. Professor Lüders has drawn attention to the use of the compound ys in the word Ysamotika to render the voiced s, an orthograph which has its only parallel in the Saka language of Chinese Turkestan. He justly remarks that such a device can hardly have been invented independently in two different places, and is inclined to think that it was done in India, when the attempt was made to adapt Brāhmī to the exigencies of the Saka language. His chief reason is that Chashṭana's reign falls in the second quarter of the second century A.D., while the manuscripts in Central Asian Saka are several centuries later.

I have, however, already pointed out that the use of this language in Kanishka's coin-legends may be taken as an indication that it had begun to be reduced to writing at an earlier period, and, at all events, it is certain that it is only in Chinese Turkestan that we know that the writing ys for z, i. e. the voiced s, was in common use.

In such circumstances we must ask ourselves whether there are any indications to show that Saka power had made such progress in Central Asia that it could have been felt by the Sakas of Kāṭhiāwār and Mālava. The only sources in which we can hope to find any information are the Chinese Annals.

We have seen that the Chinese continued to speak of the Ta Yüe-chï after 'all the Later countries' had begun to use the designation Kushāṇa. The Hou Han-shu contains history of several references to them,² and these tend to show that they began to take an increasing interest in Chinese Turkestan, whence they had once come and where the Little Yüe-chï were still living.

China gradually lost its hold on the Western Countries, and during the time between the periods Kien-wu (A.D. 25-55) and Yen-kuang (A.D. 122-125) the connexion with China was interrupted and resumed no less than three times. From the period Yang-kia (A.D. 132-134) the imperial prestige gradually dwindled, 'the different kingdoms of the west became arrogant and negligent; they oppressed and attacked each other alternately'. Some attempts at reasserting Chinese authority were occasionally made, especially by the generals Pan Ch'ao and Pan Yung, but they did not lead to lasting results.

In these events the Yüe-chi seem to have played a certain role, rarely, however, in connexion with the north-eastern oases, but repeatedly in the western and southern ones.

At the time of the consolidation of the Kushāṇa empire Yārkand was the most important power there, and is stated to have exercised supremacy over all the countries to the east of the Pāmir.

In A.D. 60, however, Khotan revolted against Yārkand, and a Khotanese noble, Khotan Hiu-mo-pa, established an independent kingdom. He was killed in an attack on Yārkand, rises to but his brother's son Kuang-tê succeeded him and gradually became so powerful that thirteen kingdoms, from Niya to Kāshgar, are stated to have been dependent on him.

In A.D. 73 the Chinese general Pan Ch'ao is stated to have brought Kuang-tê over to the imperial side, and in the ensuing years Khotan repeatedly supported him in his operations.

In the eighties Pan Ch'ao nominated a new king in Kāshgar, but the old one found Yüe-chi support with the K'ang-kü (Sogdiana) and hoped through them to enlist the assistance enter on the stage. of the Yüe-chi.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> SBAW, 1913, pp. 407 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Chavannes' translation, Toung Pao, II, viii, 1907, pp. 149 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. the translation of their biographies by Chavannes, Toung Pao, II, vii, 1906, pp. 216 ff.

Pan Ch'ao was able to prevent this by sending rich presents to the Yue-chi ruler, but when the latter sent ambassadors with presents to ask for the hand of an imperial princess, Pan Ch'ao had the envoys stopped, and from this time there was enmity and resentment between the Yüe-chi and the Chinese. In A.D. 90 the Yüe-chi sent their viceroy Sie, i. e. according to M. Sylvain Lévi 1 a sāhi to attack Pan Ch'ao, who, however, succeeded in defeating him. The Yüe-chi are said to have become frightened and to have offered tribute every year, but we need not attach much importance to this statement.

It is stated, in this connexion, that the Yüe-chi came from a distance of several thousand li and had crossed the Pāmir. It is evident that the Kushāna empire is meant, and the ruler in question may accordingly have been Wima Kadphises. In his days the Kushāṇas had therefore begun to mix in the affairs of Eastern Turkestan.

Yüe-chi and Kāshgar.

They seem to have entertained certain relations with Kāshgar. For we hear that the Kāshgar king, An-kuo, sent his maternal uncle, Ch'en-p'an, in exile to them in the period Yüan-ch'u (A.D. 114-116), and that they placed Ch'en-p'an on the throne of Kāshgar after An-kuo's death.

These events are apparently alluded to in an unverified notice quoted by Klaproth,2 according to which the king of Kāshgar was deposed by the Yüe-chi about A.D. 120, and that his subjects, on that occasion, embraced Buddhism.

Khotan and the Yüe-chi.

At the introduction of Buddhism in Kāshgar Khotan seems to have co-operated, and there are certain indications of relationship between Khotan and the Yüe-chï.

According to the Tibetan work Li-yul-gyi, Lo-rgyas-pa,3 the daughter of the king of Ga-hjag, the queen of Vijayasimha, king of Khotan, was helpful in propagating Buddhism in Shu-lik, i. e. Kāshgar. We should after this be justified in dating King Vijayasimha about A.D. 120.

Now Tibetan sources tell us about Vijayasimha's son, Vijayakīrti, that he joined King Kanika and the king of Guzan in an expedition to India, on which the city of Soked (Sāketa) was overthrown. Here Guzan can hardly be anything else than Kushāna, Gushāṇa, and we thus apparently have a reference to relations existing between Khotan and the Kushāna empire, perhaps with the successor of Wima Kadphises. And there are other indications to the same effect.

Central Asian Kharoshthi

Sir Aurel Stein has brought home from Central Asia a long series of Kharoshthī documents, written in a debased Indian Prākrit, which has been published by Messrs. documents. Boyer, Rapson, and Senart.<sup>5</sup>

> The Indian language used in these documents certainly takes us to the western Panjāb, and its use as the common administrative language points to a strong influx of Indian civilization.

> The Chinese pilgrim Hüan-tsang tells us about local traditions in Khotan, according to which the oasis had received a considerable portion of its earlier population through immigration from Takshaśilā in the days of Aśoka. It is questionable whether this is a genuine old tradition or a later myth based on the existence of Buddhism and the use of names such as Asoga and Kunala by the local population. At all events we seem to be justified in stating that a considerable influx of Indian elements took place during

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JA, XI, ii, 1913, p. 330.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Tableaux historiques de l'Asie, p. 166.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Rockhill, The Life of the Buddha, p. 240.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Cf. Thomas, *Ind. Ant.*, xxxii, 1903, p. 349.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Khar. Inscr.

<sup>6</sup> Cf. Stein, Ancient Khotan, i, pp. 156 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Cf. Thomas, Festgabe Jacobi, pp. 57, 62.

the Indo-Scythian period, and it was evidently at this time that Buddhism was introduced in Khotan.

The oldest Kharoshṭhī text discovered in Eastern Turkestan is a manuscript of a version of the Dhammapada, which seems to belong to the second century A.D. The language is here still a pure Indian Prākrit. It bears witness to the existence of canonical books in the north-western Prākrit and to their use in Chinese Turkestan.

At an early date, however, Sanskrit was introduced as the sacred language of Buddhism in Turkestan. At Ming-Öi, west of Kuchi, Brāhmī fragments in Sanskrit have been found which belong to the second century, and in the Kharoshṭhī documents mentioned above, most of which come from the Niya site, we occasionally find quotations from Buddhist Sanskrit works such as the Udānavarga and the Prātimokshasūtra.

We can with some confidence draw the conclusion that the Buddhist monks of Eastern Turkestan began to take up the study of Sanskrit about the time of Kanishka, while Prākrit was largely used for administrative purposes. The clerks and officials were mostly non-Indian natives, and they were not in possession of the same learning and religious interest as the Buddhist monks. The language of the documents has, consequently, lost its correctness and seems to be strongly influenced by the local vernaculars.

Professor Thomas has maintained 3 that the language of the Khotan country in old Old lantimes was a form of Proto-Tibetan, and that the Saka speech, which we later on find in guage of Khotan. use in books and documents, must have been introduced some time between Sung-yün (A.D. 518-522) and Hüan-tsang. I cannot accept this statement.

Already the Dhammapada manuscript presents some features which seem to indicate the existence of Sakish in the Khotan country at the time when it was written, and there are more such indications in the Kharoshthī documents. I have already mentioned the use of words such as vainti, vita, vitainti, which find their explanation in the Saka language, and in another place I have drawn attention to some phonetic and grammatical details which point in the same direction. I may add the curious double dot sometimes found in Kharoshthī documents and which also occurs in the word Hashthunä in the Wardak Vase inscription: it seems to be of the same kind as the frequent double dot of Khotanī Saka.

There are, so far as I can see, so many details which remind us of the Iranian tongue of Chinese Turkestan, that there cannot be any question of a mere accident. If we further bear in mind that Chinese sources state that the Little Yüe-chi were settled, together with Tibetan tribes, in the south of the country, and that the Yüe-chi seem to have been Iranians, it seems almost necessary to assume that their ancient language had been preserved, perhaps side by side with Tibetan dialects, and made its influence felt in the official language represented by the documents. And we know that Sakish later on became the language of administration in the Khotan country.

In his Serindia is Sir Aurel Stein raises the question whether the far-spread use of Kharoshthī and an early Prākrit was not partly a result also of the political influence which the powerful Indo-Scythian dominion established both north and south of the Hindukush seems to have exercised for a time in the Tarīm Basin during the early centuries of our era, or of that even more important cultural influence which must have

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<sup>1</sup> Cf. Lüders, Bruchstücke buddhistischer Dramen, Berlin, 1911.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Khar. Inscr., nos. 204, 510, 511, 514, 523.

<sup>8</sup> Asia Major, ii, pp. 251 ff.; Festgabe Facobi, pp. 46 ff.

<sup>4</sup> Cf. my remarks, Festschrift für Ernst Windisch, pp. 85 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> SBAW, 1916, pp. 822 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Cf. e. g. Boyer, Rapson, and Senart, JA, XI, xii, 1918, pp. 319 ff.

accompanied the Buddhist propaganda carried eastwards from the Oxus region about the same period'.

It seems to me that we have certain indications to the effect that the Kushanas exercised considerable influence in Eastern Turkestan in the first centuries of our era. Not only do we find several names containing the word Kushana, as already mentioned, but such documents as are dated show a remarkable correspondence with Indian Kushāṇa inscriptions and coins in the titles used and in the arrangement of the dates.1 Thus when we read in the Kharoshthi document, no. 581: samvatsare 4 2 maharayadirayas(r)a mahamtas(r)a jayamtas(r)a dharmiyas(r)a sachadharmastidas(r)a nuava maharaya Amkvag(r)a devaputras(r)a kshunammi mas(r)e 4 divas(r)e 10 4, we are at every step reminded of the Indian Kushāṇas, and we involuntarily draw the inference that the latter had left a strong mark in the administration of Chinese Turkestan.

Rulers men-

It will be seen that the date of no. 581 first gives the year as referring to the reign tioned in Kharoshthi of a 'King of Kings' and then mentions the kshuna of the mahārāja Amkvag(r)a. In documents. one document, no. 661, which was found in what was evidently an early structure at Endere, the suzerain is styled Khotana maharaya rayatiraya and named Hinajha Avijidasimha.

> In such circumstances we must ask ourselves whether it is not possible to assume that all the different mahārājas acknowledged the suzerainty of one overlord, and since no. 661 speaks of a 'King of Kings' of Khotan, Sir Aurel Stein may have been right in thinking 2 that we have throughout to do with Khotan rulers.

> We should then have to assume that all these rulers were more or less contemporaneous and exercised some special function, indicated by the term kshuna, in rotation.

> Now kshuna is evidently the same word which occurs as kshana in certain Saka documents from the Khotan country and as kshum in Tocharian documents from Kuchi,4 where it means 'rule', 'term'.

> It would then be possible to identify the ruler Amkvag(r)a with the Khotan king, An-kuo, or, according to the pronunciation of the T'ang period,  $\hat{A}n$ -kwok, the son of Kien,6 who, according to the Hou Han-shu, came on the throne in A. D. 152 and is mentioned again in A. D. 175.7

> In a paper read in the Berlin Academy on the 28th July, 1927, Professor Lüders has, however, shown that most of the rulers mentioned in the documents do not belong to the Khotan realm, and in a lecture at the Seventeenth International Congress of Orientalists Professor Rapson arrived at similar results.

> It is, therefore, impossible to identify Amkvag(r)a with the Khotan ruler An-kuo and utilize this identification for chronological purposes. The documents only give the name of one Khotan ruler, Avijidasimha, the remaining rulers do not seem to have acknowledged the suzerainty of Khotan. We must try if it is possible to arrive at some approximate dating from other sources.

Chinese accounts.

The Hou Han-shu states that Khotan, Kāshgar, Yārkand, and other countries tendered their submission to China in A.D. 127. Two years afterwards, however, Fangts'ien,8 king of Khotan, enlarged his influence against the wishes of the Chinese. He

<sup>1</sup> Cf. my remarks, Acta Orientalia, ii, pp. 121 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Ancient Khotan, i, p. 366.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Cf. my remarks JRAS, 1914, pp. 351 ff.; Ostasiatische Zeitschrift, viii, pp. 220 ff.

<sup>4</sup> Cf. Lévi, JA, XI, ii, 1913, pp. 311 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Karlgren, nos. 4 and 480.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> T'ang pronunciation Kjon, Karlgren, no. 373.

<sup>7</sup> Cf. my remarks, Acta Orientalia, ii, pp. 113 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> T'ang pronunciation, *Piwang-dz'ien*, Karlgren, nos. 26, 1077.

was subsequently, in A.D. 132, defeated by the Kāshgar king, whom the Chinese induced to attack him, but the event shows that Khotan's power was on the increase.

The Chinese tried to interfere in Khotan in A.D. 152, when they killed Kien, king of Khotan, but the Khotanese placed Kien's son, An-kuo, on the throne, and after these events, we hear, Khotan became arrogant.

Now we have seen that Tibetan sources speak of an expedition against India undertaken shortly after A.D. 120 by the Khotan king Vijayakirti in connexion with King Kanika and the king of Guzan. If this statement is based on genuine tradition, it seems necessary to infer that the Kushāṇas, some time after the demise of Wima Kadphises, succeeded in enlisting the support of Khotan for a forward policy in India. We have, as we have seen, reason for assuming that the population of Khotan was partly of the same stock as the Kushānas, and their joining hands in a great undertaking would naturally lead to a strengthening of their position both in Khotan and in India. It is perhaps not a mere accident that we meet with rulers using the same titles as the Kushāņas in Turkestan at the same time when the Western Kshatrapa Chashţana begins to use the Saka form of his father's name instead of the barbaric Sanskrit rendering used on the latter's coins.

We do not know who the king Kanika mentioned in the Tibetan tradition was. It King seems a priori likely that he was a member of the royal family of Khotan. The Khotan Kanika. king Kien mentioned above bears a name which reminds us of Kanika, and we may draw the inference that such names were used in the royal family.

It seems probable that King Kanika was the famous Kanishka, though Tārānātha, as stated by Professor Thomas, distinguishes between them, and says that the latter, whom he dates in the Maurya period, as a young man was chosen as sovereign in the land of Tili and Mālava. For Kanika was, according to the Mahārajakanikalekha,<sup>2</sup> a northern king of the Kuśa race, and Kuśa can hardly be anything else than Kuśhi, the ethnic designation used in Kanishka's coin-legends.

It is a well-known fact that Kanishka is not mentioned in Chinese historical sources. Kanishka. Now we know that the Chinese were well aware of the happenings in the Western Countries down to about A.D. 125, but not after that time.3 It seems difficult to avoid the conclusion that Kanishka rose to power after the year A.D. 125. And if he is identical with King Kanika, he must have started on his career from the Khotan country. And there are indications in Chinese Buddhist texts which point in the same direction.

The most important notices about Kanishka in Chinese texts have been brought Chinese together by M. Lévi. Now we read in the Chinese translation of Kumāralāta's Kalpa-accounts of nāmanditikā,8 which was composed shortly after the reign of Kanishka: 'In the family 6 of the Kiu-sha there was a king called Chen-t'an Kia-ni-ch'a. He conquered Tung T'ien-chu (i. e., according to Messrs. Huber and Lévi, Eastern India) and pacified the country. His power spread fear; his good fortune was complete. He set out to return to his kingdom. The route passed through a broad, flat land.'

Professor Lévi is inclined to explain Chen-t'an as connected with Chandana, which, according to Sarat Chandra Das,7 in Tibetan texts is stated to be an old designation of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Thomas, l.c. <sup>1</sup> Ind. Ant., xxxii, 1903, p. 349.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Franke, Beiträge, pp. 70 ff.; Chavannes, Toung Pao, II, viii, p. 150.

<sup>4</sup> JA, IX, viii, 1896, pp. 444 ff.; IX, ix, 1897, pp. 526 ff.; Ind. Ant., xxxii, 1903, pp. 381 ff.; xxxiii, 1904, pp. 110 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Cf. Açvaghosa, Sûtrâlamkûra, traduit par Édouard Huber, Paris, 1908; H. Lüders, Bruchstücke der Kalpanāmaņditikā des Kumāralāta, Leipzig, 1926; Lévi, JA, ccxi, 1927, pp. 95 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> JASB, Lv, i, 1886, p. 193. The fragments of the Sanskrit text have kula.

Khotan: 'The original Chen-t'an or Chīn-thān would be Kashgaria; and Chen-t'an Kia-ni-ch'a would be Kanishka, king of Khotan. I cannot,' he says, 'avoid believing that the cradle of the power of the Tukhāra-Turushkas is to be found in that region.'

At all events the Kalpanāmaṇḍitikā refers to Kanishka as a Kushāṇa coming from a country outside Tung T'ien-chu, and if we compare the statement of the Mahārājaka-nikalekha, according to which King Kanika, of the Kuśa race, came from a northern country, we become inclined to think of Khotan.

Such was also the opinion of Dr. Fleet, who said 1 that Kanishka belonged 'to a separate clan, sept, or ruling house of the Kushan tribe, which made its way from Khotan into Kashmir, and thence to India'.

Now the Tibetan text quoted above is to the effect that King Kanika, i. e. probably Kanishka, undertook his expedition to India in connexion with the Guzan king and King Vijayakīrti of Khotan. This tradition seems to bear out the inference drawn above that the Indian Kushāṇas some time after Wima Kadphises' death tried to strengthen their position by joining hands with their cousins beyond the Pamir, and the result was evidently a large consolidation of Kushāṇa power, and the introduction of a new era, which may have been used both in Turkestan and in India, where it is usually spoken of as the Kanishka era.

It seems probable that Vijayakīrti was not the ruling king of Khotan when he left for India, and that Vijayasimha was then still alive. In that case it is tempting to identify Vijayasimha, which is evidently a biruda and is only known from Tibetan sources, with the Khotana maharaya rayatiraya Hinajha (?) Avijidasimha of the Turkestan document no. 661, the only document which gives the name of the 'King of Kings'. The uncertain Hinajha may be the proper name of the ruler, who may or may not be the Fang-ts'ien of the Hou Han-shu, who attacked his neighbours in A.D. 129. But it seems natural to infer that the era used in the Turkestan document, no. 661, is the same as the Kanishka era and was established on the occasion of the great consolidation of Kushāṇa power which led to the expedition to Eastern India.

Kanishka and the Little Yüe-chï. If Kanishka came from Khotan, it will be necessary to accept the theory of Baron A. de Staël Holstein,<sup>2</sup> that he did not belong to the great (Ta), but to the Little (Siao) Yüe-chi. The Ma-ming-p'u-sa-chuan, the biography of Aśvaghosha, which was translated into Chinese before A.D. 412, expressly states that Aśvaghosha's patron, i. e. Kanishka, was king of the Siao Yüe-chi. And in its description of the Little Yüe-chi kingdom of its own time the Wei-shu gives the information that its capital was Purushapura, i. e. Peshāwar, and that for this reason they were called the Little Yüe-chi. The Baron is probably right in explaining this curious statement as meaning that Peshāwar was known as the ancient capital of the Little Yüe-chi, and that therefore the designation Little Yüe-chi might later be transferred to other tribes using the same capital. Now it was certainly Kanishka who first made Peshāwar the capital of the Yüe-chi empire, and the remark in the Wei-shu accordingly adds strength to the theory that Kanishka was a Little Yüe-chi.

Kanishka's

Such indications as have been mentioned above point to the conclusion that Kanishka belongs to a second Kushāṇa wave, and that he invaded India some time after A.D. 125.

After Sir John Marshall has shown, from the unmistakable evidence of archaeological stratification, that Kanishka followed after Wima Kadphises, and was perhaps even separated from him by an interval, there cannot any more be the question of dating his inscriptions in the Vikrama era. Nor can he be the founder of the Saka era of A.D. 78-9,

because Wima Kadphises was, as we have seen, reigning long after that date. We must necessarily assume that the era in which his and his successors' records are dated begins at a later date, and the silence of Chinese annals is strongly in favour of the assumption that it cannot begin earlier than A.D. 125.

We possess quite a large number of records in Kharoshthi and Brahmi dated in that era. We have inscriptions of Kanishka between the years 1 or 3 and 23, of Vāsishka between 24 and 28, of Kanishka II in the year 41, of Huvishka between 33 and 60, and of Vāsudeva between 74 and 98.1

Now we know from Chinese sources that the Ta Yüe-chi Po-tiao sent an embassy to the Chinese emperor in the year 230 and received the title 'king of the Ta Yue-chi allied to the Wei'. According to Chavannes,2 Po-tiao can very well be a rendering of Vāsudeva, and it has been maintained that, if such be the case, we should be able to fix the beginning of the Kanishka era approximately between A.D. 130 and 170.3 And 170 is certainly, in that case, the very latest possibility, but the earliest one may fall before 130, because we do not know whether 98 was Vāsudeva's last year, and because there seem to have been more than one Vasudeva. I shall show in the chapter about the eras that there is some reason for fixing the epoch of the Kanishka era in A.D. 128-129.

The fact that Po-tiao is designated as a Great Yüe-chi does not, on the other hand, militate against the theory that Kanishka, the founder of the dynasty, was a Little Yilechi, for his Indian conquests made him the successor of the Great Yüe-chi, and to the Chinese of a later date, who had long been out of touch with the Western Countries and had no records of his conquests, he and his successors would be the Great Yüe-chi, just as was the case with the first Kushāṇas.

Among the Chinese texts mentioning Kanishka, the translation of the Kalpanāmaṇḍi-Kanishka in tikā is the most important one, because this work was written shortly after his demise. It apparently refers his expedition to Eastern India to the first years of his reign, and the Tibetan accounts of King Kanika's achievements are to the same effect.

Now we have an Indian inscription, on the relic casket found in the Kanishka stupa near Peshāwar, which seems to be dated in the first year of the Kanishka era, i.e. according to my chronology in A.D. 128-129, and the natural inference is that Kanishka entered India via the Peshāwar country and presumably from Central Asia. The different sources accordingly seem to be in thorough agreement with each other with regard to this point.

And the agreement goes further. The next inscriptions dated in the Kanishka era are of the year 3 and have been found at Sarnath.4 Here we also learn to know the names of two of his governors, the mahākshatrapa Kharapallāna and the kshatrapa Vanaspara, and we are again reminded of the Kalpanāmaņditikā, which states that he conquered Eastern India and pacified the country.

The same text contains the information that Kanishka subsequently set out to return to his country. His route passed through a broad, flat land, where he observed a stūpa, which proved to belong to the Jainas. It is here natural to think of Mathurā,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In the Mathurā inscription of the year 77, Lüders' List, no. 62, Huvishka is mentioned, not, however, as ruling, but as having given his name to a Vihāra in Mathurā.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Toung Pao, II, v, p. 489. The T'ang pronunciation of the name was Pud-d'ieu, cf. Karlgren, nos. 753, 1240.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Oldenberg, Nachrichten der Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Göttingen, 1911, pp. 427 ff.; Fournal of the Pali Text Society, 1910-12, p. 17; Lüders, SBAW, 1912, p. 830.

<sup>4</sup> Lüders' List, nos. 925 and 927.

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where the inscriptions from the Kankālī Tīlā have so many references to Kanishka and his dynasty and to the Jainas. And in Mathurā the Kanishka era came to replace the Vikrama Samvat, which was used by Śodāsa, just as was the case with the era introduced by Wima Kadphises after his reconquest, in the provinces which he again brought under the rule of the Sakas.

Kanishka returns to his country.

The narrative in the Kalpanāmaṇḍitikā makes us inclined to think that Kanishka went back to his own country, i. e. as we have seen, probably to Khotan. Now we soon find inscriptions, dated in his era, in the west, from Zeda and Hidda in the north to Sui Vihār in the south, and in the Zeda inscription we find the earliest known instance of the use of the words iše kshuṇami after the date, which may, as already indicated, point towards Khotan.

We may draw the conclusion that Kanishka retraced his steps towards Peshāwar, which became a Kushāṇa capital, and that the new state of things led to the introduction of his era in that neighbourhood, while the ancient Buddhist centres farther to the north, at Hashtnagar, Jamālgaṛhī, and Loriyān Tangai, which were situated outside his proper sphere of action, retained the old reckoning, as they had done after Wima Kadphises' reconquest, in addition to the new era, which we find used at Mamāne Pherī in the Chārsadda district.

We find Indian inscriptions dated during the reign of Kanishka down to the year 23, the first month of the summer season, i. e. A.D. 151, while a record of the year 24, the fourth month of the summer season, i. e. A.D. 152, belongs to the reign of his successor Vāsishka. The natural inference is that Kanishka died in the interval between the summer 151 and the summer A.D. 152.

We have seen above that the Hou Han-shu states that the Khotan king Kien was killed in the year A.D. 152. The name Kien was pronounced Kivn in the T'ang period,<sup>3</sup> and if we compare the Chinese rendering of Kapa, the name of the first Kushāṇa, as Kivp, we are justified in restoring the Khotan king's name as Kana, and this Kana can very well be a shortening of Kanishka, Kanika.

It is therefore possible that Kanishka actually returned to Khotan and assumed the suzerainty there, some time before his death in A.D. 152, and in this connexion it is worth while recalling the fact that Hüan-tsang states that Kanishka 'governed by his army a wide territory, even to the east of the Ts'ung-ling mountains'. If such be the case, Kanishka's reign led to a great consolidation of the Kushāṇa power in India and in Turkestan, and after his return to Khotan he and his successors were acknowledged as the suzerains over the whole empire.

Kanishka's importance.

Kanishka's conquests accordingly resulted in a considerable strengthening of the power of the Kushāṇas. And in India itself the idea of a great empire was again brought to life. And it seems probable that the consequences were greater openings for learning and literature, which show a flourishing development in and after his days.

He did not, however, any more than the Kadphises kings, come to India as the bearer of a new civilization. He adapted himself to that of his subjects, and in this way his rule became of importance, because he gave protection to Indian religions, Indian art, and Indian scholarship. And, on the other hand, he and his dynasty in all earnestness opened the way for Indian civilization to Central and Eastern Asia. The mediums of this propaganda were above all Buddhism and Sanskrit.

Kanishka and Buddhism. Already Kujūla Kadphises seems to have shown favour to Buddhism, and we repeatedly find references to Buddhist propaganda carried on by the Yüe-chi in Chinese

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASIAR, 1920-1, p. 35.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Karlgren, no. 373.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Lüders' List, no. 149<sup>a</sup>.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Si-yu-ki, Popular edition, i, p. 56.

sources. But the state of things becomes quite different when Kanishka enters upon the stage. And here it is exactly his conquest of the east which seems to have been of greatest importance. There he came into contact with Brahmanic learning and civilization, and above all the famous Asvaghosha became associated with him.

According to the Chinese biography of Aśvaghosha, which in this detail seems to Aśvaghosha. be supported by fragments of a Sanskrit text found in Chinese Turkestan, he was originally not friendly towards Buddhism, but was converted by the patriarch Pārśva.

The Śrīdharmapiṭakanidānasūtra, which was translated into Chinese in A.D. 472, narrates how Chen-t'an Kia-ni-ch'a defeated the king of Pāṭaliputra and demanded a large indemnity, but agreed to accept Aśvaghosha, the Buddha's alms bowl, and a naturally compassionate cock instead. Later on the king of An-si, i.e. Parthia, attacked Kanishka, but was defeated after a sanguinary war, and now Aśvaghosha expounded the law to him.

We may infer that Asvaghosha became associated with Kanishka on the occasion of his expedition towards Eastern India and later on strengthened him in his sympathy with Buddhism.<sup>3</sup>

According to Buddhist tradition a council was held under Kanishka's patronage in Kanishka's Kuvana near Jālandhara or in Kuṇḍalavana in Kashmir. The purpose is stated to have council. been to collect or to comment on the Sacred books, and the leading monks are said to have been Pārśva and Vasumitra.

It seems probable that there was a codification of Buddhist canonical works about Kanishka this time, and that the language in which they were written down was Sanskrit, while the and north-western church language previously seems to have been the old Prākrit of the Kharoshṭhī Dhammapada and Kharoshṭhī inscriptions, one of which, the Kurram casket record of the year 20, contains a quotation from a canonical work in that language.

The date of that inscription may perhaps indicate that the Sanskrit redaction belongs to the last years of Kanishka's reign, and a trace of the new state of things is perhaps found in the Peshāwar inscription no. 21, which seems to belong to the time of Kanishka's successor and where a Sanskrit blessing is added at the end. At all events, Sanskrit seems to have spread over the territory where Kharoshṭhī was used, at an early date. Thus we have already seen 4 that Sanskrit ṣtanzas are occasionally found in Kharoshṭhī documents from Chinese Turkestan, and together with Sanskrit the Brāhmī alphabet begins to replace Kharoshṭhī.

With Kanishka, therefore, a development sets in, which gradually led to the dis-Sanskrit appearance of Kharoshthī in the old Yüe-chī empire. In the Indian provinces it lingers and con in out-of-the-way places such as Hashtnagar, Jamālgarhī, and Loriyān Tangai, and also in Taxila we find Kharoshthī records of a late date at Jauliā. But a birch-bark Brāhmī manuscript in Sanskrit found at the same place tends to show that we have only to do with a survival of bygone times. And the latest dated record from more central districts is of the year 61.

Among Kanishka's successors only Vāsishka and Huvishka are mentioned in Kanishka's Kharoshthī inscriptions. Those two kings also seem to have held sway in Kashmir. successors. In Kalhaṇa's Rājataraṅgiṇī, i, 168 ff. we read: 'There were in this land three kings, Hushka, Jushka, and Kanishka, who built three towns named after them. That wise

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Lüders, Bruchstücke der Kalpanāmanditikā, p. 33.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Lévi, JA, IX, viii, 1896, pp. 475 ff.; Ind. Ant., xxxii, 1903, p. 387.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The Tibetan tradition according to which Kanishka was not from the beginning in favour of the creed (cf. Kern, *Indian Buddhism*, p. 121) is not likely in face of the fact that he seems to have dedicated Buddhist relics in Peshāwar in the first year of his reign.

<sup>4</sup> Above, p. lxxiii.

king Jushka, who built Jushkapura with its Vihāra, was also the founder of Jayasvāmipura. These kings, who were given to acts of piety, though descended from the Turushka race, built at Śushkaletra and other places Maṭhas, Chaityas, and similar (structures). During the powerful reign of these (kings) the land of Kashmir was, to a great extent, in the possession of the Bauddhas, who by (practising) the law of religious mendicancy had acquired great renown. At that time one hundred and fifty years had passed in this terrestrial world since the blessed Śākyasimha had obtained complete beatitude. And a Bodhisattva lived (then) in this country as the sole lord of the land, namely the glorious Nāgārjuna, who resided at Shaḍarhadvana.'

Kalhana's dating of these kings is clearly wrong, but it is certain that his Jushka is identical with Vāsishka, his Hushka with Huvishka.

It is curious that Kanishka comes last in Kalhaṇa's list, and it is possible that Mr. Hemchandra Raychaudhuri is right in thinking that he is not the founder of the dynasty but a later king of the same name.

We know that Kanishka made Peshāwar his western capital, and it is possible that the conquest of Kashmir was effected from that base, after Kanishka's return from his eastern expedition. The account of the Rājataraṅgiṇī may be interpreted to mean that the actual conqueror of Kashmir was Hushka, i. e. Huvishka, who was perhaps a younger brother of Jushka, i. e. Vāsishka. To judge from the Rājataraṅgiṇī Jushka's place in Kashmir's history seems to have been more prominent than was the case with the two other rulers of the dynasty, and he may have been the first Kushāṇa emperor who resided for some time in Kashmir. The last king in Kalhaṇa's list may then have been his son, a second Kanishka, different from the famous Kushāṇa king of that name.

Kanishka II. And we have a Kharoshthī inscription of the year 41, found at Ārā on the Indus, which bears witness to the existence of a second Kanishka. It is dated during the reign of the maharaja rajatiraja devaputra kaïsara Vajheshkaputra Kanishka, i. e. the ruler uses the old Indian title mahārāja, the imperial, originally Iranian, rājātirāja, the semi-Chinese devaputra, and the Roman kaïsara, i. e. caesar.

Mr. Banerji, who first published the inscription,<sup>2</sup> without, however, recognizing the title kaïsara, was of opinion that we are here faced with the founder of the Kanishka era, who 'after a period of ten or fifteen years spent in campaigning in Eastern and Central India... might have left the government of India in the hands of his eldest son and crossed the Indus to attend to pressing affairs on his northern and north-western frontiers'.

There is not, however, any foundation for such an assumption, and most scholars are of opinion that there were two rulers called Kanishka. This conclusion seems unavoidable in the face of the facts to which attention has been drawn by Professor Lüders that Vāsishka uses the imperial titles mahārāja rājātirāja devaputra shāhi during the period when, according to Mr. Banerji, Kanishka was still the supreme ruler, and that the emperor Kanishka of the Ārā inscription is characterized by the mention of his father's name, which is never the case with other Kushāṇas, so that we must assume that it was done in order to distinguish him from another ruler of the same name.

Dr. Fleet, it is true, thought that the Ārā inscription and another one from Māṇi-kiāla, of the year 18, belong to a later revival of the line of the great Kanishka after the death of Vāsudeva. But the palaeography of the two records shows that they cannot

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Political History of Ancient India, Calcutta, 1923, p. 255.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, pp. 58 ff.

<sup>3</sup> SBAW, 1912, p. 827.

<sup>4</sup> JRAS, 1913, pp. 95 ff.

be so late, and, besides, Dr. Fleet's theory leads to the assumption of a new and elsewhere entirely unknown era for these two inscriptions.

We must, therefore, evidently assume the existence of a second Kanishka, the son of Vajheshka. Now Kalhana's Jushka shows that the s of the name Vasishka must have been voiced, and such a pronunciation is reflected in the form Vajheshka. In other words, the father of the king Kanishka of the Ārā record was Vāsishka, the successor of the great Kanishka, and it is quite likely that this second Kanishka was the ruler mentioned in the Rajatarangini.

The Ārā inscription of the year 41 falls between the years 33 and 60, for which we have records of Huvishka. There is, apparently, a certain overlapping of the reigns of these kings, and in this connexion it is of interest that the wording of the Rājatarangiņī leads us to think of three contemporaneous rulers.

Professor Lüders assumes that Vāsishka succeeded the great Kanishka, and that, Reconat his death, the empire was divided, Kanishka II, the son of Vāsishka, ruling in the events, north, while Huvishka held sway in India proper. Later on, however, Huvishka also became master of the north, for in the year 51 he is mentioned as emperor in the Wardak inscription.

This theory is the only one which leads to satisfactory results. It must, however, perhaps be slightly modified.

It can hardly be doubted that Vāsishka was the immediate successor of the great Kanishka. The latter's last date is in the year 23, and already the following year we find Vāsishka mentioned with the imperial title. He was probably the son of Kanishka, since his own son bears this same name, and succeeded his father in the natural course of events, wherefore he did not issue coins in his own name.

His last recorded date is in the year 28, and he may have died about that time. I think that we may assume that he was succeeded as emperor by his son Kanishka II.

Huvishka may, as we have seen, have been the actual conqueror of Kashmir, perhaps as the great Kanishka's general, and he was probably a brother of Vāsishka. After the latter's succession to the position of emperor, or after his death, he seems to have become governor or viceroy in the eastern provinces, at least as early as the year 33. It is noticeable that he is not characterized as emperor (rajātirāja) before the year 40. Until then he is simply styled mahārāja devaputra.

It is therefore possible to assume that he did not make himself independent before that date, and that may have been the occasion when he began to issue coins in his own name.

We cannot tell whether Kanishka II survived this new departure of Huvishka by more than a year, or if it was brought about by rumours of his approaching death. We only know that Huvishka was later on recognized as suzerain also in the north, for he bears the imperial titles in the Wardak inscription of the year 51.

Huvishka is the last of the great Kushāṇas who has lest traces in the north-west. The dynasty was continued after his demise, and also later royal houses claimed Kanishka as their ancestor. But already Vāsudeva seems to have become quite Indianized, and the Sanskrit language and the Indian civilization connected with it gradually became the leading factors in the ancient empire of the Indo-Scythians. Kharoshthī ceased to be the prevailing script of the north-west, though it lingered on in out-of-the-way places, and the ancient north-western Prākrit was gradually brought under the strong influence of the languages of the Middle Country and lost its power of resistance, after it ceased to be used in literature and administration.

<sup>1</sup> The form of the name will be discussed in the chapter devoted to the inscription below.

From a historical point of view, therefore, Huvishka's reign closes the period covered by Indian Kharoshthī inscriptions, though the dynasty remained in power also after his demise, and though the empire may have increased still more. Thus the extension of Kushāṇa power westwards, which we can infer from the inscriptions and records found at Sui Vihār, at Mohenjo Daro, and even so far west as Tor Dherai in the Loralai district of Baluchistan, may have been continued by Kanishka's successors. For the shāhi Yola Mīra mentioned in the Loralai record seems, from palaeographical reasons, to belong to the time of Vāsudeva or even later. But the strong Sanskritization of that inscription bears witness to the new development which began with Kanishka.

# THE ERAS USED IN KHAROSHTHI INSCRIPTIONS

A little more than thirty Kharoshṭhī inscriptions are dated, in years, months, and days, but without any indication of the era or eras used. It has sometimes been maintained that we have throughout to do with one and the same reckoning. Palaeographical considerations, however, make it impossible to accept that opinion. For if we compare e. g. the letters of the Taxila plate of the year 78 and the Sui Vihār plate of the year 11, there can be no doubt that the latter is later than the former and must, accordingly, be dated in an era which was established some time subsequent to the year 78 of another, older, reckoning.

At least two eras.

Most scholars are now agreed in thinking that we have to do with at least two different eras, and, in accordance with the current view, I shall provisionally arrange the dated records in two groups.

#### A. OLDER GROUP.

- 1. Maira: [sam 58].
- 2. Shahdaur A: ra[ja]no Damijadasa saka-sa...[shashti...60]. Reading uncertain.
- 3. Shahdaur B: [maharayasa?] Ayasa sam. . . .
- 4. Mānsehrā: ... adhashathi....
- 5. Fatehjang: sam 68 Prothavatasa masasa divase shodase 16.
- 6. Taxila copper-plate: samvatsaraye athasatatimae 78 maharayasa mahamtasa Mogasa Panemasa masasa divase pamchame 5 etaye purvaye.
- 7. Muchai: vashe ekasitimaye 81.
- 8. Kala Sang: [sam 100]. Reading uncertain.
- 9. Mount Banj: samvatsaraye 102.
- 10. Takht-i-Bāhī: maharayasa Guduvharasa vasha 26 sambatśarae tiśatimae 103 Veśa-khasa masasa divase [praṭha]me [di 1 atra puña]pakshe.
- Pājā: samvatsaraye ekadasa[sa\*]timaye 111 Śravaņasa masasa di[va\*]se pam[chada]se 15.
- 12. Kāldarra: vasha 113 Śravaņasa 20.
- 13. Mārguz: [vashe 1\*]17.
- 14. Panjtār: sam 122 Śravaņasa masasa di pradhame 1 maharayasa Gushaņasa rajami.
- 15. Taxila silver scroll: sa 136 ayasa Ashadasa masasa divase 15 isa divase . . . maharajasa rajatirajasa devaputrasa Khushanasa arogadakshinae.
- 16. Peshāwar Museum, no. 20: sam 168 Jethamase divase pamchadase.
- 17. Khalatse: sam 187 maharajasa Uvimaka[vthi]sasa.
- 18. Taxila silver vase: ka 191 maharaja[bhrata Manigulasa putrasa\*] Jihonikasa Chukh-sasa kshatrapasa.

- 19. Dewai: sam 200 Veśakhasa masasa divase athame 8 itra khanasa.
- 20. Loriyan Tangai: sa 318 Prothavadasa di 27.
- 21. Jamālgarhī: sam 359 Aspai[u]sa padhammammi.
- 22. Hashtnagar: sam 384 Prothavadasa masasa divasammi pamchami 5.
- 23. Skārah Dherī: vasha ekuņachadusatimae Ashadasa masasa di[vase 22].

### B. LATER GROUP.

- 24. Kanishka casket: sam 1 ma[harayasa] Kanishkasa.
- 25. Sui Vihār: maharajasya rajatirajasya devaputrasya Kanishkasya samvatśare ekadaśe sam 11 Daïsi(m)kasya masas[y]a divase(m) athaviśe 28 [aya]tra divase.
- 26. Zeda: sam 11 Ashadasa masasa di 20 Utaraphagune isa kshunami... murodasa marjhakasa Kanishkasa rajami.
- 27. Māṇikiāla: sam 18 Kartiyasa majh[e] divase 20 etra purvae maharajasa Kaņesh-kasa.
- 28. Box lid: sam 18 masye Arthamisiya sastehi 10 is[e] kshunammri.
- 29. Kurram: sam 20 masasa Avadunakasa di 20 is[e] kshunammi.
- 30. Peshāwar Museum, no. 21: maharajasa [Vajush]kasa sam [24 Jethasa?] masasa di . . . iše kshunammi.
- 31. Hidda: sambatśarae athavimśatihi 28 masye Apelae sastehi daśahi 10 iś[e] kshunammi.
- 32. Shakardarra: sam 40 P[r]oṭhavadasa masasa divas[ami] viśami di 20 atra divasakāle.
- 33. Ārā: maharajasa rajatirajasa devaputrasa kaïsarasa Vajheshkaputrasa Kanishkasa sambatśarae ekachapar[i]śa[i] sam 41 Jeṭhasa masasa di 25 iś[e] divasakshuṇami.
- 34. Wardak: sam 51 masy[e] Arthamisiya sastehi 15 imena gadrigrena ...maharaja rajatiraja Hoveshkasra agrabhagrae.
- 35. Und: sam 61 Chetrasa mahasa divase athami di 8 isa kshunami . . . Purvashade.
- 36. Mamāne Pherī: sam 89 Margasirasra masi 5 ise kshunami.

An incomplete date, masasa di 25, is further found in the Kāniza Dherī inscription.

It is a well-known fact that the Brāhmī inscriptions of the Indo-Scythian period Eras in present a similar state of things. If we abstract from some uncertain cases, we have on one side the Amohinī tablet of the year 72, during the reign of the Svāmin, the mahākshatrapa Śoḍāsa, and on the other a series of records dated in years ranging between 3 and 98 and giving the names of the Kushāṇa rulers, Kanishka, Vāsishka, Huvishka, and Vāsudeva. The former is usually considered to be dated in the Vikrama era, while the other series should evidently be brought together with our group B, and the prevailing opinion is to the effect that these records should all be referred to an era instituted by the famous emperor Kanishka. There is still a Mathurā inscription, no. 78 of Professor Lüders' List of Brāhmī inscriptions, dated in the year 299 and during the reign of some mahārāja rājātirāja, which has been interpreted in different ways.

The existence of a Kanishka era is, as already stated, admitted by most scholars. Various In other respects opinions have differed to a great extent, and even at the present day views. no solution has been found which has met with general acceptance.

Edward Thomas 1 proposed to refer the dates of Kanishka and his successors to the Seleucidan era of 312 B.C. or to the Parthian era of 248 B.C., with omitted hundreds, 3 to 98 standing for 303-398 in the former and for 203-298 in the latter case. Cunningham 2 and Bühler 3 also thought of the Seleucidan era as an alternative. The

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Academy, 16 Dec. 1874; ASWI, ii, 1878, p. 31.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Numismatic Chronicle, 3rd series, xii, 1892, p. 44.

<sup>3</sup> Indische Palaeographie, § 19 B.

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latter scholar, however, also proposed 1 to refer these dates, and also the Taxila plate of the year 78, to the same era as the Śodasa inscription of the year 72, again operating with omitted hundreds.

The Seleucidan era has also been adduced by Professor Vogel 2 in explanation of the dates of the Loriyan Tangai and Hashtnagar pedestals, while M. Foucher is inclined to refer the Taxila copper-plate to the Parthian era, supposing the figure for 100 to have been suppressed.

Vincent Smith once thought of the possibility of referring the date of the Takht-i-Bāhī inscription to the Caesarean era of Antioch, which ran from 49 or 48 B.C., or to some other foreign era.

Use of foreign eras.

The theories which reckon with eras established and used by foreign rulers outside of India are not a priori likely. We can understand that the Seleucidan era may have been used on a coin of Plato, who may have had some traditional connexion with the Seleucids.<sup>5</sup> But it would hardly be intelligible that it should have been used by the Sakas and Kushāṇas, who had never had anything to do with the Seleucids, or by their subjects in the Indian borderlands in their private records. With regard to the Parthian era, it should be borne in mind that the Saka empire in India was the result of a weakening of the Parthian empire, which led to their former subjects, the Sakas, making themselves independent, and it is hardly likely that the latter should go on using the Parthian era after that event. Moreover, the Parthian rulers themselves generally use the Seleucidan era on their coins, the Parthian era occurring only rarely and sporadically before 38 B.C., and with regularity only from A.D. 41.7

Omitted hundreds.

With regard to the supposed omission of the hundreds, with which some of these theories operate, I may further recall the remark made by Professor Dowson,8 that it has never, even at the present day, been customary to omit the hundreds in formal records, because 'it would entirely defeat the object of putting a date upon a monument intended to endure for a long period'.

Indian eras.

Most scholars have operated with Indian eras, instituted in or near India by national or foreign rulers.

Vincent Smith 9 tried to establish the use of the Saptarshi era, with omitted hundreds and thousands, and Messrs. Banerji 10 and Foucher 11 brought a supposed Mauryan era of 322 B. C. into the field, assuming the hundreds to have been suppressed. Against these theories we have the same objection about the omission of the hundreds, and with regard to the supposed Mauryan era, I can only repeat the statement of the late Dr. Fleet 18 that there is not any evidence whatever to the effect that such an era has ever existed.

Attempts have, further, been made to separate one record, the Taxila copper-plate of the year 78, from the rest and to date it in an unknown Indian or semi-Indian era, which Sir John Marshall 13 thought was instituted by Moga about 95 B. C., and Mr. Banerji 14

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> WZKM, x, p. 173.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> ASIUPP, 1903-4, p. 55; ASIAR, 1903-4, p. 259.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> L'art gréco-bouddhique du Gandhāra, ii, p. 4882. 4 ZDMG, lx, 1906, p. 71.

It should be borne in mind that we have no information about this ruler, and that the solitary coin bearing his name is stated to have been procured somewhere in Central Asia; cf. Numismatic Chronicle, New Series, ii, 1875, p. 2.

<sup>· 6</sup> Cf. the remarks of M. Foucher, l. c., p. 490.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Cf. Fleet, JRAS, 1913, pp. 985 f., with further references.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> JRAS, N.S., vii, 1875, p. 382. <sup>9</sup> JRAS, 1902, p. 175; 1903, pp. 1 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> l. c., pp. 484 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, p. 67.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> JRAS, 1910, pp. 242 ff., 824 ff.; cf. my remarks, Acta Orientalia, I, pp. 12 ff., iii, p. 71.

<sup>13</sup> JRAS, 1914, p. 986.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, p. 67.

by Vonones c. 100 B.C., while Professor Rapson 1 referred the date to an era which 'may possibly mark the establishment of the new kingdom in Seistan after its incorporation into the Parthian empire by Mithradates I, c. 150 B.C.' Against all these theories it must a priori be urged that we are hardly justified in assuming the use of a separate era for one individual record, where there cannot be the question of an individual regnal era, unless it is impossible to date it in the same way as the remaining inscriptions of about the same time, and we have seen in the Historical Introduction that such is not the case with the Taxila plate.

The well-known historical eras of India, the Vikrama reckoning beginning in 57 B.C. and the Saka epoch of A.D. 78, have been adduced by several scholars.

Professor Dowson 2 proposed to refer the date of the Takht-i-Bāhī inscription to Vikrama the Vikrama era, and Cunningham's started the theory that that reckoning was established era. by Kanishka, a view which was consistently maintained by Dr. Fleet,4 who tried to show that the only era used in Kharoshthī inscriptions was that of 57 B.C.

Dr. Fleet draws attention to the undoubted fact that the Vikrama Samvat is the great historical era of Northern India, and that it has never been an astronomical era, so that 'there is no reason for thinking that, like the Kaliyuga era of 3102 B.C., it is an artificial reckoning, invented at some later time and set back to its starting-point in 58 B.C. We have no good grounds for believing otherwise than that—like the era of A.D. 78 ...—it existed from its very beginning'.

Dr. Fleet is no doubt also right in maintaining that 'all our knowledge of Indian eras teaches us that it was founded by a king, not by a people'.

On the other hand, it cannot any more be maintained that the Vikrama era was instituted by Kanishka, after we have learnt to know that this ruler was later than Kujūla and Wima Kadphises and cannot have ascended the throne before some time in the second century A.D., as stated in the Historical Introduction.

Nor does it seem possible to follow Sir John Marshall in ascribing the institution The Azes of the Vikrama era to Azes, a view which has been endorsed by Professor Rapson.<sup>7</sup>

Sir John's theory is based on his interpretation of the date of the Taxila silver scroll, sa 136 ayasa Ashadasa masasa divase 15 as 'in the year 136 (of the era) of Azes', &c. But the objections to this interpretation raised by Dr. Fleet and others are unanswerable: whenever a ruler is mentioned in connexion with a date, he is always the king or chief actually reigning at the time of the record, and there is no single instance in old inscriptions where a ruler is mentioned without a title.

It should be borne in mind that both the Kanishka and the Azes theory are without Vikramāany foundation in Indian tradition, and simply based on general reasoning. On the ditya, other hand, we have an Indian tradition to the effect that the era was instituted by Vikramāditya, a ruler of Mālava, who made an end to the dominion of the Sakas and began to rule in 57 B.C. As stated in the Historical Introduction this tradition is in

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Cambridge History of India, i, p. 570.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JRAS, New Series, vii, 1875, pp. 376 ff., ix, 1877, pp. 144 ff. <sup>3</sup> ASI, ii, p. 68.

<sup>4</sup> Cf. JRAS, 1903, pp. 333 ff.; 1905, pp. 223 ff., 357 ff.; 1906, pp. 706 ff., 979 ff.; 1907, pp. 169 ff., 1013 ff.; 1908, pp. 177 ff.; 1913, pp. 95 ff., 913 ff., 965 ff.; 1914, pp. 992 ff.; 1915, pp. 314 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Cf. Lüders, SBAW, 1912, pp. 829 f.; Marshall, JRAS, 1914, pp. 983 f., 1915, pp. 195 f.; Guide to Taxila, 2nd edition, Calcutta, 1921, p. 17; Konow, SBAW, 1916, pp. 820 f.; Ep. Ind., xiv, pp. 135 ff.; Acta Orientalia, ii, pp. 130 ff., iii, pp. 73 ff., v, pp. 31 ff.

JRAS, 1914, pp. 973 ff.

The Cambridge History of India, i, pp. 581 ff.

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thorough agreement with everything which we know from other sources, and there is no a priori reason for disbelieving it.

It is true, as maintained by Dr. Fleet, that in A.D. 405, and for nearly five centuries from that time on, the era was known as 'the reckoning of the Malavas, the years of the Mālava lords, the Mālava time or era', but no such designation is used in the oldest record where it has been traced with great probability, viz. the Sodasa inscription of the year 72. And we have no sufficient reason for accepting the suggestion of Professor Thomas, that it dates from the foundation of the tribal independence of the Malavas. But it may reasonably be inferred that it was founded by a ruler of Mālava, and according to Indian tradition Vikramāditya was such a ruler.

Dr. Fleet maintained that 'later research has shown that there was no such King Vikramāditya'. But the tradition about him is certainly old.<sup>2</sup> Haraprasād Śāstrī has drawn attention to the fact that he is mentioned in Hāla's Sattasaī. And the fact that it was the Gupta conqueror of Mālava, Chandragupta, who revived the title supports the tradition according to which he was a Malava ruler.

There is also another detail which supports the theory that the Vikrama era was a national Indian reckoning: it is evidently based on the old Savana year, with its three chāturmāsyas. That such was the case I infer from the designation krita used in ancient records about the Vikrama years.

Krita years.

This term has been explained in different ways. Professor Bhandarkar thought that it means 'made' and characterizes the era as 'invented by the people of astronomers for the purpose of reckoning years'. Against this explanation Dr. Fleet aptly objected that the Vikrama era was never an astronomical reckoning. His own explanation, however, that krita may be connected with Ki-li-to, the name of a race which, according to Hüan-tsang, seized the sovereignty of Kashmir after the death of Kanishka, is hardly

Mahāmahopādhyāya Haraprasād Śāstrī says that 'krita is the name of the first year of a cycle of years which was used in the Vedic Period', the cycle comprising four years. In that case every year designated as krita should be 'divisible by four after the deduction of one'. That is not, however, everywhere the case.

Moreover, a date such as that of the Bijayagadh inscription of Vishnuvardhana 7: kriteshu chaturshu varshasateshv ashtāvimseshu, shows that every year of the era, and not only every fourth, was designated as krita.

In such circumstances, I still think that my own explanation 8 is the only possible one: kṛita is the best throw in the play of dice, when the number of points is divisible by four, and a krita year is a year divided into three seasons, each comprising four months. That is the arrangement in all the Brāhmi dates of the Kushāṇas and in the Sodasa inscription, which all are subsequent to the epoch of the Vikrama era, but not in Kharoshthī inscriptions.

Vikrama era presupposes an older era.

If the designation krita is old, it is evidently chosen in order to distinguish the era from another, older one, and that must have been a Saka reckoning, if Indian tradition is right in stating that the Vikrama era was instituted by Vikramāditya in order to commemorate his victory over the Sakas.

In such circumstances it becomes unlikely that the Vikrama era is used in any of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JRAS, 1914, p. 414.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Ep. Ind., xii, p. 320.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> JRAS, 1913, pp. 996, 998.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Gupta Inscriptions, p. 253.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. SBAW, 1916, pp. 812 f.

<sup>4</sup> Ind. Ant., xlii, 1913, p. 163.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Ep. Ind., xii, p. 319.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Ep. Ind., xiv, p. 140.

the inscriptions of the Sakas and Kushāṇas. The Kanishka series cannot come into discussion for the reasons already mentioned. And it is just as unlikely that the older group of inscriptions should be dated in an era instituted to commemorate the overthrow of the Sakas during whose reign those inscriptions were issued. It is a priori more likely that Professor Thomas¹ was right in thinking of an unknown era, an old Saka reckoning. And if the word saka occurring after the name of the ruler and before the year in the Shahdaur inscription should be restored as sakasambatšare or some equivalent term, this explanation becomes certain.

The chief reason for referring the older Kharoshthī records to the Vikrama era seems to be that it seems necessary to assume an epoch in the first century B.C., as is the case with the Vikrama Samvat, and most scholars are disinclined to assume the existence of two eras beginning about the same time. But the result has been, as already indicated, that it has proved necessary to assume a separate era for the Taxila copperplate of the year 78, which is evidently older than the Śodāsa inscription of the year 72.

Professor Rapson,<sup>2</sup> it is true, reads the date of the latter record as 42, but Professor Lüders has proved that the numerical figures must be read as 72. Dr. Fleet, on the other hand, wanted to distinguish between Patika, the son of the kshatrapa Liaka Kusuluka, and the mahākshatrapa Kusulua Patika, the contemporary of Śodāsa's father, the mahākshatrapa Rajula. But such a distinguishing can only become likely if it proves impossible to identify them, and we have seen in the Historical Introduction that such is by no means the case.

The result of the above discussion is that the Vikrama era cannot well have been used in ancient Kharoshṭhī inscriptions, and that the older group was probably dated in an undefined Saka-reckoning.

We must now examine the claims of the well-known Saka era of A.D. 78.

Saka era of

James Ferguson started the theory, which is still the prevalent one, that Kanishka A. D. 78. was the founder of that reckoning, wherefore the inscriptions of Kanishka and his successors should be referred to its epoch. Professor D. R. Bhandarkar went further and referred both the Śodāsa inscription of the year 72 and all Kharoshṭhī inscriptions to the Śaka era, operating with omitted hundreds, viz. 200 for the records of the Kanishka group.

This theory has been discussed at length by Dr. Fleet, whose arguments have never been refuted. The era is emphatically a southern reckoning. According to the Akbarnāma, the Vikrama era was specially connected with Mālava, Delhi, &c., the Śaka era with Gujarāt and the Dekhan. The latter is, besides, the second astronomical reckoning of the Hindus.

'The name of the era', he says, 'is found first, with certainty, in an astronomical date of the year 427, falling in A.D. 505, apparently from Gujarāt, which speaks of it as the Śaka-kāla, "the Śaka time; or the time or era of the Śakas". But the era itself is traced, without a name, from the year 41 to the year 310, in the inscriptions of Nahapāna from Nāsik and in the inscriptions and on the coins of his successors, the so-called Western Kshatrapas or Satraps, from Kāṭhiāwār and the northern parts of Gujarāt. And so foreign was the use of it to Northern India outside those territories that, apart from a few cases in astronomical writings, the first known instance there is found in the Dēōgaḍh inscription of A.D. 862 from the Lalitpur District, United Provinces, in which,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JRAS, 1913, pp. 636 f. <sup>2</sup> l.c., p. 575.

<sup>4</sup> JRAS, New Series, xii, 1880, pp. 259 ff.

<sup>•</sup> JRAS, 1913, pp. 987 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Ep. Ind., ix, pp. 243 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> JBoBrRAS, xx, p. 297.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Transl. by Beveridge, ii, p. 22.

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however, the Saka year 784 is given only as a subsidiary detail alongside of the Vikrama year 919, which gives the real dating of the record.'

In such circumstances it is a priori unlikely that this Saka era should have been used in Kharoshṭhī inscriptions. The older group can, of course, be left out of consideration. The question, however, remains whether the Kanishka group should be referred to it.

Dr. Fleet has shown that the tradition according to which the Saka era of A.D. 78 was instituted in commemoration of the overthrow of the Sakas by Vikramāditya is of North-Indian origin and later than the southern version according to which it dates from the anointment of a Saka king, and he aptly remarks that 'our general knowledge of Indian eras teaches us that this—the anointment of a king, the beginning of his reign, not his overthrow—was the real origin of the reckoning'.

Founder of the Saka era. Several such rulers have been suggested. Professor Bhandarkar¹ thought of Vonones, Messrs. Boyer² and Fleet³ of Nahapāna, and Professor Jouveau Dubreuil⁴ of Chashṭana. Vonones, however, was a Parthian and older than Azes, and Nahapāna and Chashṭana, with inscriptional dates between the Śaka years 42 and 52, are evidently too late to be the founders of the era. And besides, none of them seems to have exercised suzerain power.

Most scholars are of opinion that Kanishka was the founder of the Śaka era. But we have no information to show that he held direct sway in the provinces where the reckoning had its home. Moreover, his time was probably, as we have seen, the second century A.D., and, finally, the Khalatse inscription shows that his predecessor Wima Kadphises was still ruling in the year 187 of the old era, i. e. long after the establishment of the Śaka era of A.D. 78.

Now it should be borne in mind that there is not a scrap of evidence in favour of the Kanishka theory, which is simply based on general historical considerations.

The wording of the oldest Śaka dates, those of the Western Kshatrapas, point to the conclusion that its calendar was more Indian than is the case in the Kharoshṭhī dates. They give the year, the month, the paksha, and the day, and the mention of the paksha is an Indian feature. The seasonal details found in the Śodāsa record and the Brāhmī inscriptions of the Kanishka group, on the other hand, are missing. We thus get the impression that we are faced with a Śaka reckoning which had, in some details, been influenced by an older Indian era. And we have direct information in the Kāla-kāchāryakathānaka, which is supported by the Hou Han-shu, to the effect that the historical Śaka era was introduced, in order to replace the Vikrama Samvat, by a ruler who effected a reconquest of the old Saka dominions in India, and this ruler can hardly be anybody else than Wima Kadphises, a theory which has already been suggested as an alternative by Professor Gardner.

Provisional results.

My results are so far purely negative. We have no good grounds for identifying the eras used in Kharoshṭhī inscriptions with any reckoning known from other sources. We are evidently faced with two different eras, and since the records are so often connected with the names of Indo-Scythian rulers, it is a priori likely that they had both been established by Indo-Scythians, presumably by Sakas, since the Shahdaur inscription seems to characterize the year as a Saka year.

Wording of Kharoshthi dates. It is conceivable that some information can be derived from the arrangement of the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JBoBrRAS, xx, pp. 280 ff.

<sup>3</sup> JRAS, 1913, p. 992.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Cf. my remarks, Ep. Ind., xiv, pp. 140 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JA, 1x, x, 1897, pp. 120 ff.

Ancient History of the Deccan, pp. 26 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> p. li, foot-note.

dates, which is the same in both groups of inscriptions. The details given are the year, the month, and the day, and there is no mention of the season, which is always given in the Brāhmī inscriptions of the Kanishka group, probably in imitation of the national Indian calendar used in the Vikrama Samvat, since that era was formerly used in Mathura, the place where most of these records have been found.

The year is called sanivalsara as in the Vikrama era, while varsha and synonymous The years. terms are employed in the later Saka era of A.D. 78. This latter word is, however, occasionally used in Kharoshthī records, viz. in the Muchai inscription of the year 81; in the first date of the Guduvhara epigraph of the year 103, where the second date has the usual word; in the Kaldarra record of the year 113; on the Skarah Dheri image of the year 399; and probably in the Marguz inscription of the year 117.

It is impossible to draw any inference from this state of things. It only shows that both terms were used in North-western India, and that sainvatsara was probably the common one in connexion with the calendar.

Nor have we any right to infer from the occasional use of the word varsha that the Beginning year began with the rains. I agree with Dr. van Wijk,1 that the occasional use of of the year. Macedonian months makes it probable that the year began in October, as in the Macedonian calendar. It is possible that this points to a certain influence exercised by the Macedonian calendar, though there was also an old Indian year beginning in the autumn.2

The names of the months are mostly Indian, but sometimes occur in forms which Names of do not appear to be quite regular in the dialect. Thus we find ashada for ashadha; the months. śravana, for which we should expect shavana; aśpażu for aśvayu or aśpayu. It is possible, though perhaps not likely, that such forms are due to a secondary adoption of Indian months in an originally un-Indian calendar. Such an assumption might be supported by the fact alluded to above, that we occasionally find Macedonian monthnames: Apellaios (Hidda), Artemisios (box lid, Wardak), Audunaios (Kurram), Daisios (Sui Vihār), and Panemos (Taxila copper-plate). A priori it is quite likely that the foreign invaders, during whose rule these records were executed, adopted the calendar of their predecessors, the Greeks.

We are on safer ground when we want to ascertain whether the months began with Beginning full or with new moon. The Zeda inscription of the year 11 is dated on the 20th of the months. Āshāḍha, and the nakshatra is given as Uttaraphalgunī. Professor Jacobi has kindly informed me of the fact that that nakshatra belongs to the śukla paksha, where it may occur between the fifth and eighth day. If, therefore, the twentieth day of the month falls in the beginning of the bright half, in our case on the fifth day after new moon, the fullmoon day must be the first day of the month.

The same result can apparently be derived from the Takht-i-Bāhī inscription, where the first Vaiśākha seems to be characterized as [puña]paksha, evidently because it was the Buddha's birthday, which tradition sometimes gives as the full-moon day of Vaiśākha.

Another peculiarity of the calendar is the through reckoning of the days of the Numbering months, without the Indian division into pakshas. Thus we have the 20th Ashādha of days. (Zeda), the 27th Proshthapada (Loriyān Tangai), the 25th Jyaishtha (Ārā), &c.

This is a distinctly un-Indian feature, and taken together with the other indications An Indoit shows that the calendar used by the Indo-Scythians was characterized by a blending Macedonian

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Acta Orientalia, iii, p. 82; cf. Dr. Fleet, JRAS, 1905, p. 234.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Jacobi, Festschrift Roth, pp. 68 ff.; Nachrichten der Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Göttingen, 1894, pp. 105 ff.

of foreign, Macedonian, and Indian principles, the latter being most clearly traceable in the use of Indian names for the months. In other words, we are faced with the initial stages of that fusion of Greek and Indian notions which found its final formula in the system of the Siddhantas.

The Siddhāntas.

In such circumstances we are justified in putting the question whether any conclusion can be drawn from calculations, based on the Siddhantas, of such details as may be contained in inscriptional dates. The existing Siddhantas are no doubt later than our inscriptions. According to Thibaut, the Sūrya Siddhānta and some other Siddhāntas must be at least some centuries older than A.D. 500. That more than two or three centuries are necessary, might be maintained, but might also be doubted. We cannot, therefore, bring their system back to the period covered by the older Kharoshthī inscriptions, but then this system was not definitely framed from the very beginning, but gradually evolved in a country where Greek and Indian notions could influence each other, and such was the case where the Kharoshthi inscriptions are found.

If the results of calculations according to the Siddhantas are in agreement with all ascertainable facts, a strong presumption is raised in favour of the correctness of these results.

The older group.

The era used in the older group of Kharoshthi inscriptions cannot, for reasons set forth in the Historical Introduction, have its epoch earlier than the demise of Mithradates II, in 88 B.C., and hardly later than 60 B.C., the traditional date of the establishment of Saka power in Ujjayinī.

Most of the inscriptions of the older group are dated in such a way that no inference can be drawn as to the epoch of the era, and none of the rulers mentioned in them can be the founder of the era, the oldest recorded dates being the years 56 (Maira) and perhaps 60 (Shahdaur). There is only one date which contains an addition to the usual wording, viz. the Taxila silver scroll, dated sa 136 ayasa Ashadasa masasa divase 15.

Taxila

Here the addition ayasa distinguishes the date from all other Kharoshthī dates. silver scroll. In the discussion of this record below it will be shown that the only probable interpretation of this word is to take it as an equivalent of Skr. ādyasya and as distinguishing the month Ashādha as the 'first Ashādha', i. e. there must in that particular year have been a second, intercalated, Ashādha.

> Intercalated months are well known in the Jyotisha and in later works. According to the Jyotisha there was an intercalated Ashadha every five years, but we cannot well apply the rules of the Jyotisha to a calendar which is evidently half Greek. calculate according to other rules, and, as already indicated, the system which presents itself is that of the Siddhantas.

> Dr. van Wijk 2 has done so, on the supposition that the epoch of the era cannot be earlier than 88 B.C., and that the date of the silver scroll cannot be later than A.D. 78. He has shown that, within those limits, only two years, viz. A.D. 52 and 71, had an intercalated Āshādha. And of these only the former gives a likely dating. The latter would give an initial point about 65 B.C., and the Taxila copper-plate of the year 78 would belong to the year A.D. 13, only two years before the Sodasa inscription, and two years are insufficient for covering the intervening events.

> The interpretation of the Taxila silver scroll not being certain, these results can only be considered as a working hypothesis. It is, however, remarkable how well it suits all ascertainable facts.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Astronomie, Astrologie und Mathematik, pp. 45 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Acta Orientalia, iii, pp. 79 ff. -

If we assume that the year 1 of this old era, which may be designated as the old Correspond-Saka era, corresponded to 84-83 B.C., Dr. van Wijk's calculations show the following ing Christian dates.

Older
group.

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I. Maira: [sam 58] = 27-26 B.C.
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- 2. Shahdaur A: ... 60 = 25-24 B.C.
- 3. Shahdaur B:?.
- 4. Mānsehrā: 68 = 17-16 B.C.
- 5. Fatehjang: 16 Proshthapada, 68 = 18 July, 17 B.C.
- 6. Taxila copper-plate: 5 Panemos, 78 = June, 6 B.C.
- 7. Muchai: 81 = 4-3 B.C.
- 8. Kala Sang: 100 (?) = A.D. 16-17.
- 9. Mount Banj: 102 = A.D. 18-19.
- 10. Takht-i-Bāhī: 1 Vaiśākha, 103 = 10 March, A.D. 19.
- 11. Pājā: 15 Śrāvaṇa, 111 = 23 June, A.D. 27.
- 12. Kāldarra: 20 Śrāvaṇa, 113 = 5 July, A.D. 29.
- 13. Mārguz: 117(?) = A.D. 33-34.
- 14. Panjtār: 1 Śrāvaņa, 122 = 7 June, A.D. 38.
- 15. Taxila silver scroll: 15 of first Ashādha, 136 = 17 May, A.D. 52.
- 16. Peshāwar Museum, no. 20: 15 Jyaishtha, 168 = 24 April, A.D. 84.
- 17. Khalatse: Sam 187 = A.D. 103-104.
- 18. Taxila silver vase: 191 = A. D. 107-108.
- 19. Dewai: 8 Vaiśākha, 200 = 24 March, A.D. 116.
- 20. Loriyān Tangai: 27 Proshthapada, 318 = 27 August, A.D. 234.
- 21. Jamālgarhī: 1 Aśvayuj, 359 = 24 August, A.D. 275.
- 22. Hashtnagar: 5 Proshthapada, 384 = 7 June, A.D. 300.
- 23. Skārah Pherī: 22 Āshādha, 399 = 10 May, A.D. 315.

As mentioned in the Historical Introduction, no. 10, the Takht-i-Bāhī inscription The Azes also has another date, in the 26th year (during the reign) of the Mahārāja Guduvhara, era. and I have tried to show that this date should be referred to another era, instituted by Azes, the first Parthian ruler in North-western India.

This Parthian era is not used in other known records, and even in the Guduvhara inscription the corresponding year of the old Saka era is treated as the real date, the month and the day being given in connexion with it. It is evident that the old Saka era had got such a firm footing that it could not be replaced during the short-lived Parthian dominion.

It also, as will appear from nos. 16-23, continued to be used after the establishment The old of the later Saka era and the accession of Kanishka, and such was apparently sometimes Saka era and later also the case outside of the area covered by Kharoshthī inscriptions. For the Mathurā eras overlap. Brāhmī record of the year 299 must evidently be referred to this reckoning. It is not difficult to account for this state of things. The old Saka era was clearly the first secular era ever introduced in India.

We know from the inscriptions of Aśoka and Khāravela that ancient Indian rulers Older dated their records in regnal years, and we can infer from these documents and from the Indian Purāṇas that records were kept of the happenings in the different regnal years of individual kings and of the length of their reigns, which were also grouped together in dynastic lists. The Jaina stanzas quoted in the Historical Introduction are such an account of the duration of the different dynasties of Mālava intervening between Mahāvīra's Nirvāṇa and the beginning of the Vikrama era. Such summaries can be characterized

as lists of dynastic eras, but these 'eras' have never been in actual use; they are simply a summing up after the events.

We might even say that the idea of a secular era for practical purposes is un-Indian. The history of the Aryans had theoretically no beginning. Aryan civilization had developed in an unbroken line, chiefly under Brahmanical influence, and the fact that the Aryans had once come into the country from outside had long been forgotten. Their history in India was assumed to be as old as creation, and there was no reason for marking out any event, such as the coming into power of an individual king or dynasty, otherwise than in the records of the royal offices.

Buddhist and Jaina eras.

It was only when new religions arose, which did not claim to continue Vedic tradition, that we can trace the use of real eras in India, viz. those of the Jainas and Bauddhas. And it is characteristic that, in both cases, the starting-point is not the birth of the founder or the time of his illumination, but the moment when he disappeared from the world of men and was reabsorbed into the eternal reality of Nirvāņa.

Such eras might be used by the clergy, or by clerks who were under their influence, for the purpose of dating secular events. Thus it has been assumed that there is a reference to the Buddhist era in the figure 256 in the Rupnath edict of Asoka, and that some of the events registered in the Khāravela inscription have been dated in the Jaina era.2 But there is not the slightest indication to show that Indian rulers thought of imitating the Jainas and Buddhists in instituting dynastic eras. There was never, as stated above, a Mauryan era. If it had existed, we should certainly expect to find traces of it in the inscriptions of the Mauryan emperor Aśoka. And nobody has ever suggested the existence of any other old dynastic era.

North-west

It was on the north-west frontier that conditions prevailed which led to the cropping Brahmanism did not play the same role as in the east, and foreign frontier and up of such eras. Indian eras. conquerors had held sway for a considerable period. The Greek predecessors of the Indo-Scythians had of old a secular era, the Seleucidan, which was also largely used by the Parthians, the overlords of the Sakas before they made themselves independent. There can hardly be any doubt that such models were at work when the Sakas, whose calendar was to a great extent based on that of their predecessors, began to continue the regnal era of an individual ruler after his death and thus established the first secular era in India.

> This era naturally got a strong footing, and it has clearly served as a pattern, when later eras were introduced.

> The Vikrama era seems, as we have seen, to have received the designation krita in order to distinguish it from the old Saka era, while the mention of the season and the seasonal months was introduced into the dates in accordance with the purely Indian calendar. But the year was called samvatsara and was Kārttikādi, and the days of the month were counted through, as in the old Saka reckoning.

> The Sodasa inscription of the year 72 seems to show that the Vikrama era was also introduced in the Mathura country, but we seem to be justified by the inscription of the year 299 in inferring that the old reckoning was not quite forgotten.

> According to the Kālakāchāryakathānaka the Vikrama era in Mālava was subsequently replaced by a new era, instituted by the Saka king who made an end to Vikramāditya's dynasty. This is the historical Saka era of A.D. 78. In the inscriptions of

The old and the new Saka eras.

The old Saka era

and the

Vikrama

Samvat.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Hultzsch, Inscriptions of Asoka, pp. xlv ff., 169.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Konow, Acta Orientalia, i, pp. 22 ff.

the Western Kshatrapas we again find the month-names, but the months are divided into pakshas, and in other old inscriptions in the era we find seasonal months instead of the month-names. Vikramāditya's innovations have left their traces.

This new era was intended for use in the country which had been reconquered, and it was not introduced in the provinces where the old Saka reckoning had not been abolished. We therefore find north-western inscriptions, and even the Khalatse record of the reign of Wima Kadphises, dated in the old Saka era also after the introduction of the second Saka era of A.D. 78.

In Mālava itself the Vikrama era does not appear to have gone out of use. And Mathurā we have already seen that it was introduced in Mathurā. Here we should expect to and the find the new Śaka era employed. It is, however, evident that Wima Kadphises did not make his power felt to any considerable extent in Mathurā, and even in Mālava and Kāṭhiāwar the Indianization of the name of the first kshatrapa as Bhūmaka points to a growing influence exercised by Indian notions.

It was only later, after a fresh wave of Saka conquerors, that a new Saka era was really established in the Mathurā country. The new conqueror was the famous Kanishka, and his introduction of a new era is a striking parallel to what happened after Wima Kadphises' conquest. This new era also conquered the north-west, though the old reckoning remained in use, side by side with the new one, in the northern provinces, just as it had done after Wima Kadphises' reconquest.

The Mathurā inscriptions of Kanishka's dynasty remind us of the oldest Śaka records after Wima Kadphises also in another respect, in so far as the seasonal months were retained, while the west stuck to the old Saka calendar.

The Saka era of A. D. 78 and the Kanishka era thus came to replace the Vikrama reckoning in such provinces where the Saka power had declined or had never been established. The great importance of Kanishka, however, led to his era being introduced also in the west, in those districts where his power was most strongly felt.

The first date in the Kanishka era has been found in the Kanishka stūpa near The Peshāwar and is of the first year of the era. It is therefore evident that he brought it Kanishka to India from his old home in Chinese Turkestan, and in the Historical Introduction I have tried to show that it was established on the occasion of an Indo-Scythian coalition some time after Wima Kadphises' death, which resulted in a powerful expedition to Eastern India under Kanishka.

It now remains to examine whether we have any indications which allow us to arrive Its epoch. at a conclusion as to the epoch of this, the third, Saka era.

And an examination of the records dated in this era will show that in two of the inscriptions the nakshatra current on the day when they were executed is mentioned. The Zeda inscription of the year 11 couples the Uttaraphalgunī with the 20th Āshāḍha, and the Uṇḍ record of the year 61 the nakshatra Pūrvāshāḍha with the 8th Chaitra.

Such features do not occur every year, and in the case of these inscriptions, which are not too much removed in time from the Siddhāntas, it seems to be comparatively safe to apply their methods to our calculations.

Dr. van Wijk has done so 1 and arrived at the result that the only set of years within the limits with which we can reasonably reckon which fulfils the conditions is Kaliyuga 3240 for the Zeda and 3290 for the Und inscription. The initial year of the Kanishka era would accordingly be A.D. 128-129.

Such an epoch seems to suit the circumstances. It was in A.D. 129 that the Khotan

king Fang-ts'ien attacked the neighbouring Kiü-mi, it is about this time that the Western Kshatrapa Chashtana evinces an increase in his national pride in reintroducing the Saka name Ysamotika for his father, who called himself Bhūmaka, and we have every reason for believing that Kanishka started on his career in the year A. D. 128-129.

Corresponding Christian dates.
Later group.

Assuming the epoch of the Kanishka era to be that year, the second group of dated Kharoshṭhī inscriptions has been calculated by Dr. van Wijk to correspond to Christian dates in the following way:

- 24. Kanishka casket: sam 1 = A.D. 128-9.
- 25. Sui Vihār: 28 Daisios, 11 = 7 June, A.D. 139.
- 26. Zeda: 20 Āshādha, 11 = 19 June, A.D. 139.
- 27. Māṇikiāla: 20 Kārttika, 18 = 9 October, A.D. 145.
- 28. Box lid: 10 Artemisios, 18 = 20 April, A.D. 146.
- 29. Kurram: 20 Audunaios, 20 = 2 January, A.D. 148.
- 30. Peshāwar Museum, no. 21: 24(?) = A.D. 151-2.
- 31. Hidda: 10 Apellaios, 28 = 24 November, A.D. 155.
- 32. Shakardarra: 20 Proshthapada, 40 = 27 July, A.D. 168.
- 33. Ārā: 25 Jyaishtha, 41 = 24 April, A.D. 169.
- 34. Wardak: 15 Artemisios, 51 = 25 April, A.D. 179.
- 35. Und: 8 Chaitra, 61 = 26 February, A.D. 189.
- 36. Mamāne Pherī: 5 Mārgaśira, 89 = 1 November, A. D. 216.

I accept these identifications as a working hypothesis in my edition of Kharoshṭhī inscriptions.

# GRAMMATICAL SKETCH

THE Kharoshthī inscriptions have been found over a wide territory, from the Swāt country in the north to Sui Vihār and Mohenjo Daro in the south, from Mathurā in the east to Wardak and Loralai in the west. Nevertheless, the language is fairly uniform everywhere.

It would, however, be premature to infer that this vernacular was the current speech over the whole territory in the centuries before and after the beginning of our era. We must evidently exclude the Mathurā country and perhaps districts such as Pāṭhyār, Kanhiāra, and Karnāl in the east, and probably Wardak in the west. With regard to Khalatse and Loralai we are not in a position to judge with confidence.

If we abstract from such outlying districts, it will be seen that the linguistic area covered by these inscriptions roughly coincides with the territory where we, at the present day, find Lahndī and Dardic, or Iranian languages. The language of the inscriptions is not Iranian, but an Indian Prākrit, and it is evident that the border line between Indian and Iranian has formerly run farther west than at the present day. With regard to the relationship between this old Prākrit and the Indian vernaculars of the present day, there can hardly be any doubt that we must rather think of Dardic than of Lahndī, which latter language seems to owe its present-day form to a strong influence exercised by the languages of the Middle Country, farther east.

As already stated, the language of the inscriptions is fairly uniform. We cannot, however, expect to find an absolute consistency. In the first place the area is very extensive, and there are consequently minor dialectic variations. Some traces might also be expected to be found of the different ethnic elements who lived in the country in the centuries when the inscriptions were written. As a matter of fact, however, there is nothing to remind us of the Greeks, if we abstract from some Greek names and titles, and the case does not seem to be different with regard to the Scythians and Parthians. On the other hand, we must reckon with a certain influence exercised by literary languages.

The Kharoshthī country was the home of Pāṇini, the famous Sanskrit grammarian, and Taxila was an old seat of learning. The Sarvāstivādins, who made extensive use of Sanskrit, were an influential community in the north-west, and they are repeatedly mentioned in Kharoshthī inscriptions. We might, therefore, reasonably expect to find some Sanskritisms in the language. As a matter of fact we find a complete Sanskrit sentence in a Peshāwar inscription, and the language of the Tor Dherai records is almost pure Sanskrit.

The north-western Prākrit was itself at an early date used for literary purposes. An old manuscript of a version of the Dhammapada has been found near Khotan, and parts of it have been edited by Messrs. Senart¹ and Oldenburg.² I shall designate this important text as Dhp., giving my own readings but retaining M. Senart's numbering of the leaves as A, B, C, <sup>70</sup> and <sup>70</sup>, respectively, and marking the quotations from the leaf published by Professor Oldenburg as O. The Dhammapada was not, however, the only canonical text translated into the dialect. The Kurram casket inscription contains a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JA, IX, xii, 1898, pp. 193 ff., reprinted by Benimadhab Barua and Sailendranath Mitra, *Prakrit Dhammapada*, Calcutta, 1921.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Predvaritelnaja zametka o buddijskoj rukopisi, Sanktpeterburg, 1897.

quotation from another work, and also elsewhere, as for instance in the Wardak inscription, it is perhaps possible to find traces of canonical writings.

Such works were evidently translated from a more eastern language, which might, in this way, come to exercise a slight influence on the local vernacular when used in written records. But the chief influence was evidently exercised by the north-western book-language itself.

The Dhp. shows a remarkably consistent system of noting the various sounds of the dialect.¹ But it is evident that some difficulty was experienced, because some of the sounds were foreign to other Indian languages. In the inscriptions this difficulty has led to some inconsistency, and it is not always possible to be absolutely certain about the nature of some of the sounds, which may, moreover, have been slightly different in the different districts. On the whole, however, it seems possible to draw a fairly accurate picture of the dialect.

Vowel system.

The vowels are, broadly, the same as in other Prākrits. Long and short vowels are, it is true, only rarely distinguished in writing, but the metrical Dhp. shows that they were distributed as in other Prākrits. There are no long diphthongs, ai and au having become e and o, respectively; thus Vešakha, Skr. Vaišākha; Prothavada, Skr. Praushthapada. In foreign words we occasionally find ai for ai; thus Daisika, Greek Lalous (Sui Vihār); kaisara, Latin caesar (Ārā).

a and  $\bar{a}$ .

Short and long a are both written a; thus prapa, Skr. prapā (Tor Dherai). An initial a is occasionally dropped; thus vi ya, Skr. api cha (Lion Cap.), raña, ramña, Skr. aranya (Kurram, Hidda, Jamālgarhī). In the Dhp. a sometimes becomes i in the neighbourhood of y; thus ai, Skr. ayam; bramhayirya, Skr. brahmacharya. Similarly we find ayimita for āyamitvā (Lion Cap.); bhui for bhūyah (Zeda), but also bhuya (Wardak). In a similar way a sometimes becomes u in the neighbourhood of labial and nasal sounds; thus Kusuluka (Patika), Kusulua (Lion Cap.), evidently derived from Kusula. In the case of kshuṇa, for which Sakish has kshāna, Tocharian kshum; erjhuṇa, Sakish alysānai (Takht-i-Bāhī), it is possible that we have to do with a change of ā to u before n, of a similar kind as in Pashto.

Such stray irregularities may be considered as indications of a tendency towards a certain harmonization of neighbouring sounds. The case is different with doublets such as atra (Patika), itra (Dewai), etra (Māṇikiāla), because here we may have to do with formations from different bases. And the form sarvina (Wardak) for the usual sarvana is evidently due to contamination, while the apparent i-stroke in Sudisa side by side with Sudasa (Lion Cap.) is probably a sign of reference.

i and i.

I and  $\bar{\imath}$  are both written i, cf. divasa, sarira. There cannot, however, be any doubt that the length of the vowel is the same as in Sanskrit. In pukaraṇi (Kāldarra), as compared with pukariṇi (Pāṭhyār) we have the same tendency towards assimilation of neighbouring sounds which we noticed in the case of a. The same is the case with khaṇasa, Skr. kshaṇe, \*kshaṇasmin (Dewai), cf. e. g. parasa, Skr. parasmin, Dhp. A³6. In Vaseṭha, Skr. Vasishṭha, on a Jamālgarhī pedestal, we have the well-known open sound of the Prākrits before a double consonant. Cf. also the form etra mentioned above. The form maheshri, Skr. mahishī, on the Lion Cap. has its parallel in Pāli mahesī. It is more difficult to judge about the e in foreign names such as Kaṇeshka side by side with Kaṇishka (Kanishka casket, Sui Vihār, Zeda, Māṇikiāla, Ārā), Hoveshka (Wardak), Vajheshka (Ārā). It is possible that the actual sound was the same as Saka ä and was difficult to render with the available signs. The Peshāwar inscription, no. 21, seems to

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. my remarks, Festschrift für Ernst Windisch, Leipzig, 1914, pp. 85 ff.

have u in Vajhushka, cf. Kalhana's  $\mathcal{F}ushka$ , and this writing also points to a difficulty in rendering the actual sound. Of a similar kind are the doublets Minipukrita and Munipukrita on the Sirkap silver plates and the writing i for Greek e in Minandra, Menandros (Peshāwar, no. 1938).

The treatment of u,  $\bar{u}$  is quite parallel; cf. hotu, Skr. bhavatu, puyae, Skr.  $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}yai\,u$  and  $\bar{u}$ . (Taxila silver scroll). In kuṭibiṇi, kuṭimbini, Skr. kuṭumbini (Dharmarājikā, Sui Vihār) we seem to have a case of harmonizing. The isolated o in Bodhasa (Tīrath), as compared with the common Budha, is comparable with the e in Vaseṭha, and the o of Hoveshka (Wardak) has its parallels in the e of this and similar names. The u of Theudama (Bajaur), Theudora (Swāt casket), Theutara (Sirkap) renders a Greek o, just as o is used for u in Greek legends such as  $\kappa o fou \lambda o$ ,  $kuj\bar{u}la$ ; paovavo pao, shaunānu shau, &c.

The vowel ri seems to have had the same development as in other Prākrits; thus ri. gaha, Skr. griha (Taxila silver scroll); kata, Skr. krita, upakacha, Skr. upakritya (Zeda); tash'a, Skr. trishnā (Kurram); kiti, Skr. kriti (Kumrahār). After p an old ri apparently becomes ra in pradhravi, padhravi (Lion Cap.); pradhavi, padhavi (Dhp.), for Skr. prithivī. Forms such as Krish'ayasa (Kanhiāra), Krisa (Karnāl), matapitrinam (Tor Dherai) are probably Sanskritisms.

Old e is well preserved; thus tena ime (Taxila silver scroll). E also represents old e. ai, as already stated. In ateura, Skr. antahpura (Lion Cap.), e is hardly derived from an old ah. The e which is used in the nominative of a-bases in several inscriptions will be mentioned in connexion with the inflexion of nouns. The e of erjhuna (Takht-i-Bāhī) finds its explanation in the phonetical tendencies of the Saka language, to which the word belongs; cf. Saka alysānai, e'ysānai, 'prince'. In the locative singular of a-bases we sometimes find i for e; thus aṭhami (Und), ekachaparišai (Ārā), masi (Mamāne Dherī), pamchami (Hashtnagar). Such forms are probably due to analogy, influenced by the parallel form in -ami. In the Dhp. there is a certain confusion between i, i. e. ī, and e; thus balaneku, Skr. balānīkam O 29; adea, Skr. atīyāt Cro 38; imi, Skr. ime A'4; savishu bhudeshu, Skr. sarveshu bhūteshu B 39, &c. It is uncertain whether such writings represent a tendency in the dialect or are due to the influence of Sakish, where old e regularly becomes ī.

O regularly represents Skr. o and au; cf. loo, Skr. lokah (Taxila gold plate); dorma-o. nasta, Skr. daurmanasya (Kurram). As in most western Prākrits the Samdhi form o has become universal in the nominative singular of masculine a-bases over an extensive territory of the Kharoshthī area. As in the Dhp., a is often written instead.

The u, i. e. probably  $\bar{u}$ , in names such as Sudasa, Muki (?),  $Kamu\bar{i}a$  (Lion Cap.) probably finds its explanation in the rules of the Saka language, where old o becomes  $\bar{u}$ .

As in other Prākrits we find instances of the change of aya, ayi to e, ava to o; thus aya, ava. thaveti, Skr. sthāpayati; hotu, Skr. bhavatu; Budhoruma, Skr. Buddhavarma, &c.

The rules of Samdhi were evidently the usual ones. Late forms such as jinaeśa Samdhi. for jineśa; vanaea for vinaïa (Jaulia) do not prove anything for the genuine vernacular.

With regard to consonants, we find many of the usual Prākrit features: preservation Consonants. of initials, dropping of finals, and assimilation of compound stops. Thus kuva, Skr. kūpa; khada, Skr. khāta; chadu, Skr. chatur; jadi, Skr. jāti; teṇa, Skr. tena; dhatu, Skr. dhātu; pada, Skr. pada; Budha, Skr. Buddha; aspaiu, Skr. asvayuj; uta, Skr. ukta; satati, Skr. saptati; sammupate, Skr. samutpāda. In hotu (Taxila scroll), side by side with bhavatu in other records, we have the change of bh to h which is common in this base.

It will be seen that the treatment of compound stops is the usual one, the first being merged in the second. The result is a doubled consonant, which is not further changed. This fact and the metrics of the Dhp., where syllables ending in a double consonant are

long, show that we cannot think of a state of affairs like that in Sindhī and Dardic, with a single consonant and a preceding short vowel, as has sometimes been assumed.<sup>1</sup>

Intervocalic stops.

With regard to intervocalic stops the state of things is less clear. Double stops remain, as already remarked, unchanged, as in other Prākrits. In the case of uncompound intervocalic stops the state of things is more complicated. We find the usual tendency towards voicing, replacing by y, and final disappearance. Some features, however, point to a tendency towards a fricative pronunciation of such sounds, not only in the case of labials, where it is common in all Prākrits, but also elsewhere. We cannot here expect to find a consistent system of writing outside of the literary texts. For the alphabet had no proper signs for such sounds, and, besides, the mental picture may sometimes, as in other languages, have differed from the actual sound, and there may also have been some difference in the different districts. We cannot, therefore, do more than draw attention to such features as seem to be of interest, and it will be necessary to analyse the state of affairs in some detail.

Intervocalic

With regard to intervocalic k we must distinguish between different cases. In the first place we have the numeral eka, where the k is always preserved, but where we have perhaps to do with the common Prākrit form ekka. The case is different in the compound pratyeka, for which the Taxila scroll has  $prach[e^*]ga$ .

Then we have those cases where an intervocalic k stands at the beginning of the second part of a compound and may have been treated as an initial, as is often the case in the Prākrits; cf. puñakara (Panjtār), upakacha (Zeda), dharmakathi (Sui Vihār), navakamika (Patika), &c. The Dhp. shows that this treatment is not the only one, for we find forms such as sagarauḍa, Skr. samkārakūṭa Cro 3; uthane(a)ala, Skr. utthānakāla  $\Lambda^3$ 9.

Where intervocalic k belongs to the base, it is usually modified; thus prach[e\*]ga, Skr. pratycka (Taxila scroll); sogra, Skr. soka (Kurram); sakra, Skr. saka (Lion Cap.). On the other hand, we have oke (Jamālgarhī); svakiya (Tor Dherai), where it is possible to think of the influence of Sanskrit, and Travasakura (Peshāwar, no. 20), which I cannot analyse.

Most instances of intervocalic k occur in the suffix ka. In the first place there is a series of foreign names and words such as Diaka, Mevaki, Miyika (Lion Cap.), Patika (Patika, Lion Cap.), Liaka (Patika, Zeda), Moïka (Panjtār), Urasaka (Taxila scroll), Granavhryaka (Māṇikiāla), Jihoṇika (Taxila silver vase), Daïsika (Sui Vihār), Avadunaka (Kurram); Kusuluka (Patika); horaka (Lion Cap.), marjhaka (Zeda). Here the k is usually preserved. Forms such as Kusulua (Lion Cap.), Moga (Patika), for which the Lion Cap. seems to have Muki, seem to show that also here there was a tendency to modify the sound.

In purely Indian words we likewise often find -k- preserved; thus sabhayaka, Skr. sabharyaka (Taxila Meridarkh plate), navakamika, Skr. navakarmika (Patika), Isparaka, Skr. Išvaraka (Taxila ladle), taruka (Panjtār, uncertain), upasika (Sui Vihār), karavaka, samvardhaka (Māṇikiāla), tanuvaka (Kurram), Makadaka (Mount Banj), Udiliaka (Jamālgarhī), nagaraka (Jauliā). In other cases, however, -k- is changed to g; thus -nayaga, navakarmiga, apanaga (Māṇikiāla), jalayuga, avashadriga, yetiga, mithyaga, mahasamghiga (Wardak), Vashisuga (Muchai). In the Wardak vase inscription we often find gra instead; thus gadrigra, kadalayigra, natigra, sambhatigra, naragra, where the r-stroke has a slightly different shape from r in old gra. In a similar way the Lion Cap. has saman[u]motrakra, Skr. samanumodaka, nakrarakra, Skr. nagaraka, with kra for old -ka.

In a few cases -k- is replaced by y; thus sanivatšaraye (Patika, Mount Banj, Pājā), daksho(i)nayae (Taxila Meridarkh plate), ekadaša[\*sa]timaye (Pājā), ekašitimaye (Muchai), Kartiya (Māṇikiāla). More frequently, however, the -k- has apparently disappeared; thus loo (Taxila gold plate), satatimae (Patika), mahasaghiana, nakraraa, utraena, Khardaa, Kamuia (Lion Cap.), sanibatšarae tišatimae (Takht-i-Bāhı), eduo (Kala Sang, uncertain), Kasua (Panjtār, uncertain), Bahalia, taņuvaa (Taxila scroll), Takshašilaa (Taxila), dhamaraïa (ibidem), navakarmia (Kanishka casket, Hidda), sanibatšarae ekachaparišaï (Ārā), shavaa (Jamālgaṛhī, Pālāṭū Dherī), Podaa (Jamālgaṛhī), šatimaa (Skārah Dherī), S[i]hil[i]a, Ak[shaï]a (Loriyān Tangai), &c.

It is of interest to compare the treatment of intervocalic g. We find g in nagara, Intervocalic bhagava (Patika), bhagava, parichaga, nagara (Taxila scroll), Nagadata (Sui Vihār), g. bhagava (Māṇikiāla), nagaraka (Jauliā), parityaga (Tor Dherai); gr in bhagrava (Swāt vase, Bīmarān, Kurram, Wardak), -maregra, bhagra side by side with bhaga (Wardak) and kr in nakrarakra, nakraraa, bhakrava (Lion Cap.).

If we compare the state of things in the Dhp. we find -k- preserved in moyaka, Skr. mochaka; shavaka, Skr. śravaka, &c.; changed to y in kshiravaya, Skr. kshirapaka, &c., and dropped in ujua, Skr. rijuka; aṭhagia, Skr. ashṭāngika, &c. For -g- we usually find k; thus raka, Skr. rāga; uraka, Skr. uraga. Occasionally -g- becomes y; thus muyamadia, Skr. mrigamātrika.

Now we shall see below that old -y- is occasionally also represented by k, gr, and it is possible that we have to do with a strongly fricative sound, approaching that of a voiced guttural fricative. The natural inference is that intervocalic k had a marked tendency towards voicing, and that both -k- and -g- were further reduced to a fricative sound. And in this connexion it is worth remembering that guttural fricatives are found in modern Khowār.<sup>1</sup>

Intervocalic kh is partly preserved, as in Vešakha (Takht-i-Bāhī, Dewai), sukha (Sui Intervocalic Vihār), and the frequent danamukha; partly changed to h, as in suha (Pājā, Kanishka kh. casket), danamuha (Dewai, Bïmarān). Similarly we find suha and sukha in the Dhp. It is possible that we have before us a tendency towards a fricative pronunciation of a similar kind as in modern Khowār.

With regard to intervocalic gh we have no inscriptional material. The Dhp. has Intervocalic forms such as lahu, Skr. laghu; oha, Skr. ogha.

Intervocalic cha is sometimes preserved; thus ekachaparisaï (Ārā), acharya (Kanishka Intervocalic casket, Sui Vihār, Kurram, Wardak, Tor Pherai), Khudachia (Peshāwar, no. 20, Māṇikiāla). Palatals. Elsewhere it is replaced by y; thus ayaria (Lion Cap.), sahayara (Muchai, Kala Sang). The initial of cha, 'and', shows the same inconsistency; thus thuva cha sagharama cha (Lion Cap.), Chukhsasa cha, baṁdhavasa cha (Patika), tatra cha (Panjtār), mata cha (Sui Vihār), Buriteṇa cha, budhehi cha, shavaehi cha (Māṇikiāla), mithyagasya cha, parivara cha (Wardak), but vi ya (Lion Cap.), avi ya, jalayuga ya (Wardak). After an old anusvāra cha is the rule; thus sardha cha (Shahdaur), saṃgharamaṁ cha (Patika), imo cha (Ara), aya cha (Kurram), yo cha (Wardak). We may compare the state of things in the Dhp.: tvaya, Skr. tvacham; sadeṇa cha, idriyeshu cha, diva ya radi cha, Skr. diva cha ratrām cha, &c.

Intervocalic j is quite parallel; thus frequently raja, mahararaja, with the same tatsama form as in modern vernaculars, avaraja (Lion Cap.), anidaja (Wardak), where j stands at the beginning of the second part of a compound, but maharaya (Patika, Takht-i-Bāhī), puya (Patika, Lion Cap., Takht-i-Bāhī, Taxila scroll, and Meridarkh plate, Dharmarājikā, Kāldarra, Jamālgarhī, Wardak) yuvaraya (Lion Cap.), vayira (Mount

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Morgenstierne, Report on a Linguistic Mission to Afghanistan, Oslo, 1926, p. 75.

Banj). In dhamaraïa (Taxila scroll) the sound is not noted before *i*. In words such as Rajula (Lion Cap.), Urumuja (Panjtār), j may stand for ñj or for z.

The Dhp. regularly has y for -j; thus viraya, Skr. virajas, teyasa, Skr.  $tejas\bar{a}$ . And it seems probable that intervocalic ch and j had a sound which was very near to that of y, if it did not actually coincide with it.

Intervocalic cerebrals.

Intervocalic chh is properly a compound and is consequently not changed; cf. pali-chhina (Lion Cap.), prachhi.. (Mānsehrā).

Intervocalic t occurs as dr in gadrigra, cf. Skr. ghațikā (Wardak), and as t in kuțimbini (Sui Vihār), kuțibini (Dharmarājikā). To judge from Dhp., where we find d throughout, the latter is probably a Sanskritized writing. Intervocalic d remains unchanged; thus edua (Kala Sang), shodasa (Fatehjang). In Kurram and Wardak it is written dr, perhaps to indicate a fricative sound; thus shadrayadana (Kurram), padriyamsae (Wardak). Intervocalic dh occurs as dhr in padhravi, pradhravi (Lion Cap.). In the word Ashādha it is always deaspirated; thus ashada (Taxila scroll, Zeda, Und, Skārah Dherī).

Intervocalic

In the Dhp. intervocalic t always becomes d,1 with the exception of ghadhedi, Skr. ghātayati O 19; kusidhu, Pāli kusīto C<sup>ro</sup> 17; samidha, Skr. svāmitā A<sup>2</sup> 1; saghadhadhama, Skr. samskritadharma C<sup>ro</sup> 4, 14, where we have dh, and chaŭri, Skr. chaturah A<sup>3</sup> 4; avhaï, Skr. abhāti B 7; phashaï, Skr. sprišati A<sup>3</sup> 10, where it has apparently disappeared.

In Kharoshthī inscriptions -t- very often remains unmodified; thus stitiye, prati-, bhagravato (Swāt vase), etaye, kshaharatasa, pratithaveti, matapitaram (Patika), chatu (Takht-i-Bāhī, Taxila ladle, Tor Dherai), hotu, matapitu (Taxila scroll), tathagato (Jauliā), bhavatu (Kanishka casket, Sui Vihār, Hidda, Wardak), satimae (Skārah Dherī), &c. In other cases it becomes d; thus chadu (Bedadi, Pālāṭū Dherī, Skārah Dherī), madu pidu (Takht-i-Bāhi), hidasuhae (Pājā), karavide (Panjtār), pradi-, aya de (Taxila scroll), satohidaņa (Dharmarājikā), khaņavide (Peshāwar, no. 20), karavide (Peshāwar, no. 5), prati-thavedi (Peshāwar, no. 4), hida (Kanishka casket), niyatide (Bīmarān), edeņa (Māṇikiāla), paristavida (box lid), shaḍrayadana, jadi, likhida (Kurram), edena (Hidda), khadao (Shakardarra), khade (Zeda, Ārā), madu (Zeda), kadalayigra, bhagravada, madapidara, bhradara (Wardak), Budharakshida (Loriyān Tangai), Podaeņa, preṭhavide (Jamālgaṛhī), bharadu (Skārah Dherī).

On the Lion Cap. we always find tr for -t-; thus dhitra, matra, pitramahi, pratrithavitro, bhakravatro, chatru, niyatritro, ñavitrave. Similarly we have Śivarakshitrasa,
bhagravatra (Bīmarān) and apparently pratithavidra (Swāt vase). Finally -t- has
apparently disappeared in prethavetiye (Taxila gold plate), prethavide (Jamālgarhī), niryaïde
(Mamāne Dherī). In all these cases it is possible to think of a kind of dissimilation.

Intervocalic d.

It may be of interest to compare the treatment of intervocalic d. It usually remains as d; thus padaņi (Tīrath), panichadaša (Pājā, Peshāwar, no. 20), Khudachia (Peshāwar, no. 20, Māṇikiāla), sarvastivadana, vedana, uvadana, sammudae (Kurram), Vasudeva, Idradeva (Peshāwar, no. 21), sada (Māṇikiāla, Wardak), Prothavada (Hashtnagar, Loriyān Tangai), pade (Skārah Dherī). In some cases, however, we find t instead; thus Prothavata (Fatehjang), sarvastivatina (Kanishka casket), sammupate (Kurram), Theütara (Sirkap). On the Lion Cap. we regularly find tr; thus pratreša, sarvastivatra, saman [u] motrakra, utraena.

We get the impression that there was a traditional writing in accordance with the Sanskrit system, but that the actual sound of intervocalic t was voiced, and that -t- and -d- both tended towards a fricative sound. And in this connexion it is of interest that modern Khowār with its r and Kalāshā with its l for old -t- seem to presuppose a similar state of affairs.

That intervocalic t was voiced might also be inferred from such cases where it becomes d in the neighbourhood of r; thus padi-, padri (Māṇikiāla, Wardak). Also intervocalic d is apparently treated in the same way in meridakha (Taxila) side by side with meridarkha (Swāt). Whether the fricative sound prevailed over the whole territory and whether it was strongly pronounced we cannot say.

Intervocalic th is generally retained; thus Rathitara (Pāṭhyār), dharmakathi (Sui Intervocalic Vihār), yatha (Kurram), tathagata (Jaulia). In the neighbourhood of r we find the same th and dh. cerebralization as in the case of t; thus padhame (Panjtar), padhamma (Jamalgarhi), and perhaps prathame (Takht-i-Bāhī), pradhravi and padhravi (Lion Cap.). The Dhp. has atha B 8, O 6, 15, adha B 7, 24, Cvo 21, pradhama O 14, padhama Cvo 5, &c. It seems probable that th represents the traditional writing and that the actual sound was voiced. The cerebralization was probably accompanied by a disappearance of r as a separate sound, so that pradhama, pradhama, prathama, padhama are all different attempts at rendering padhama.

Of intervocalic dh the only example is deyadharma (Kanishka casket, Mamāne Pheri, Tor Pherai). In the Tor Pherai record the dh here looks like dhy.

Intervocalic p is sometimes retained; thus kshatrapa (Patika, Taxila silver vase, Intervocalic Zeda, Māṇikiāla), devaputra (Taxila scroll, Sui Vihār, Ārā), Busaparo, Urvarapara (Lion P. Cap.), aropayata, upasika thapaicham (Sui Vihār), upakachaa (Zeda), kupe (Ārā), karapaka (Māṇikiāla), pratistapita (Hidda), upajaya (Mamāne Dherī), prapa (Tor Dherai). In other cases it becomes v; thus Prothavata, Prothavada (Fatehjang, Hashtnagar, Loriyān Tangai), kshatrava, pratrithavitra, ñavitrave (Lion Cap.), thuva (Lion Cap., Taxila vase), jhava (Māṇikiāla), karavita, -da (Kāldarra, Panjtār, Peshāwar, no. 5), -stavita (Taxila scroll and Meridarkh plate), prethavide (Jamālgarhī), -thavita (Taxila vase), -thavedi (Peshāwar, no. 4), -thaveti (Kurram, Wardak), prethavetiye (Taxila gold plate), namaruva, uvadana, uvagrasa (Kurram), Kavišia (Māṇikiāla), avashadrigraņa (Wardak), kuva (Peshāwar, no. 21, Shakardarra). In kua (Muchai, Mārguz, Peshāwar, no. 20, Zeda) -p- has apparently disappeared. In karavhaa (Māṇikiāla) and Dhivhakara (Nowshera) the v has become aspirated, and the same sound is perhaps intended in Mahiphatiena (Kurram). thuba (Kurram, Hidda, Taxila Meridarkh plate, Wardak) and perhaps tubaga (Loriyān Tangai) b is written for old -p-.

Intervocalic b occurs as b in -rodhibalasa, atibalana (Maira), and is perhaps changed Intervocalic to v in savalavadhapitra (Shahdaur).

We again get the impression that the voiceless and the voiced sounds are treated in the same way, and in the Dhp. we throughout find v; thus pave B 3, akavurusha B 30, avalasa A<sup>3</sup> 15. We must infer that the writing p is traditional or, in compound words, influenced by the initial p, and that forms such as thuba owe their b to the fact that intervocalic b was pronounced as v, or else thupa has become thumpa and further thumba.

We have not sufficient materials for judging about the treatment of intervocalic Intervocalic aspirated labials. We have Utaraphagune (Zeda), abhibhuti (Hidda), and in the Dhp. ph, bh. forms such as labho B 21, nabhimardadi A3 7; pravhaguna Cvo 3, salavhu B 20, avhaï B 7, navishaï O 23, abhivuyu B 30. From the treatment of -p-, -b- it would be natural to infer a pronunciation vh.

Some of the words quoted above show signs of a weakening of the difference Deaspirabetween aspirated and non-aspirated sounds. Cf. gadigra as against Skr. ghalikā tion and (Wardak), ashada, Skr. āshādha (Taxila scroll, Zeda, Skārah Dherī), upajaya, Skr. upā-aspiration. dhyāya (Mamāne Dheri) and, on the other hand, karavhaka (Māṇikiāla), Mahaphatia (Kurram), Dhivhakara (Nowshera), dha side by side with dra for drakhme (Taxila silver plate). There are several further examples in the Dhp. They are not, however, sufficient

for judging with confidence. It is possible that they are due to the influence of the Iranian tendencies of some of the individuals who made use of the language.

N and n.

With regard to nasals the most difficult question is about the distribution between the dental and cerebral sounds. In the Aśoka inscriptions we, on the whole, find a state of things similar to that in Sanskrit. In Mānsehrā, however, we have tini for trīni, ananiyam for anrinyam, and in Shāhbāzgarhī forms such as kshamanaye, garana, aviprahino, pranatika, and always n in inflexional terminations after ri, r, and sh, but, on the other hand, prapuṇati and, once, devaṇa priye.\(^1\) It seems as if the state of things in the north-west was not any more quite the same as in Sanskrit.

In the Dhp. old n remains as a dental when it is an initial or doubled, while every single intervocalic n becomes n.<sup>2</sup>

In Kharoshṭhī inscriptions the state of affairs seems to be rather complicated, and it is possible that there were local differences. We must also, a priori, reckon with the possibility of a certain influence exercised by Sanskrit, and also by the languages of the Middle Country, where later Saurasenī shows that there was a tendency to cerebralize every n.

In distinguishing between n and n I shall throughout follow Bühler's system of transliteration, which suits the state of things in the Asoka inscriptions. It is, however, conceivable that the role of the two signs has sometimes been inverted.

Such is possibly the case in the inscription on the Swāt relic vase, perhaps the oldest of all these records, where we read *Theildorena*, meridarkhena, but šakamuņi, jaņa. It seems probable that n and n, written n and n, respectively, are here distinguished as in Sanskrit. The same is perhaps also the case in the old Tirath inscription, where šakamuņisa padaņi may stand for šakamunisa padani. It is, however, also possible that we have to do with a state of things as in modern Khowār, where an r prevents the cerebralization of intervocalic n.

If we leave these old records aside it is advisable to examine the various inscriptions in geographical arrangement, beginning from the east.

In Mathurā, which is situated outside of the territory where the north-western Prākrit was spoken and belongs to the Saurasenī area, we are only concerned with the Lion Cap., because the elephant inscription does not contain any n or n, while the Rāwal record is only a copy of the Shakardarra epigraph. The Capital has no n; the dental n occurs both as initial (nisima, nakraraa, Nada) and as intervocalic, and here both corresponding to Skr. n (ateurena, parivarena, pagrana) and to n (sarvastivatrana, mahasaghiana, budhana, &c.). The Capital was set up by members of the local Saka dynasty, but in connexion with Saka chiefs from Taxila and other places. The inscription may have been drafted by a Saka, and in the Saka language n is a secondary sound. It is not, however, possible to use the forms of the Capital with confidence.

In Māṇikiāla we enter the area of the north-western Prākrit. We there find n as an initial in navakarmigeņa, but n in ṇaṇa; n as intervocalic in Kaņeshkasa, Gushaṇa, daḍaṇayago, Vespasieṇa, Buriteṇa, karavhaeṇa, navakarmigeṇa, saṃveṇa, parivareṇa, eteṇa, but n in apanage, taena, Budhilena, Khudachiena, mulena. We can apparently trace a distinct tendency to cerebralize an intervocalic n, and at the same time a weakening of the sense of difference between n and n. The bronze casket and the silver disk only have instances of intervocalic n: Graṇa-, daṇa, Gomaṇa.

In Taxila the Patika plate has nama, nagare, navakamika, and utarena, sakamunisa,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Hultzsch, Inscriptions of Asoka, pp. xcviii, lxxxv.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Festschrift für Ernst Windisch, pp. 87 ff.

Rohinimitrena according to the Dhp. rule, but Panemasa, mahadanapati, savabudhana in accordance with Sanskrit. It is possible that an attempt was made to follow the Sanskrit rules. The form sakamunisa, however, shows that there was a tendency to cerebralize an intervocalic n. The volute bracket inscription has regularly niyatito, but Savatratena.

The silver scroll only knows n, both as initial and as intervocalic (thus *Imtavhria-putrana Bahaliena Noachae nagare vastavena*), and in the Sihila vase, the Meridarkh, the Dharmarājikā, and most Sirkap inscriptions only intervocalic n occurs. In Jauliã n and n seem to be used promiscuously (danamukho 2, 4, 5, danamukho 7, 8, 10; vanaea 7).

In the Hazāra District we find only n, in cases where also Skr. has n at Shahdaur (rajano, vadhan..), and throughout at Bedadi (dana, acharyana, Kashyaviyana). Here accordingly -n- and -n- seem to have the same value.

Farther to the west we find the Dhp. rule observed at Shakardarra (nokrame, dronivadrana, danamukho, saharana). In neighbouring districts only intervocalic n occurs, the cerebral n in Fatehjang (Vadhitirana, sahayana, danamukho), Panjtār (Śravanasa, Gushanasa, danami, puñakarena), Zeda (Phaguna, Kanishkasa, danamukha, pujane, dana, anugrahena), Mārguz (-darana), and Ārā (kshunami, Dashavharena, putrana, pitarana, atmanasa, anugra[ha]rthae, sarvasa[pa]na), the only exception being in the foreign name Kanishka of the last-mentioned record. The distribution accordingly seems to be as in the Dhp. Yākubi has only -n- (danamukhe, jinakumaro), as is also the case in Unḍ (kshunami).

A similar state of things is found to the north of the Indus, where all examples are again of intervocalic n, which occurs as n at Mount Banj (danamukho), Kala Sang (... yarana Pipalakhaana), Muchai (sahayarana Vashisugana), Kāldarra (putrena, Thaidorena, pukarani, sapana, śravanasa), Pājā (Śravanasa, Anamdaputrena, Samghamitrena, sarvasatvana), and Takht-i-Bāhī (Boyanasa, shadhadana, erjhuna), while Loriyān Tangai (danamukhe 4901, 4860, 5059; danamukhe 4995) and Jamālgarhī (danamukha, image halo; thuna, pilaster base; danamukhe, sa[tva\*]na, dakshini..., pedestal, but shavaena, Podaena, stone inscription) seem to use -n- and -n- promiscuously.

In Hashtnagar we find n for Skr. n and n in Shahr-i-Nāpursān (shamaṇasa, daṇamuhe), -n- in Ghaz Dherī (daṇamukhe) and Pālāṭū Dherī (shamanana, daṇamukhe, Kash[y]aviyana), n and once (in samanuyayaṇa) n in Mamāne Dherī, and -n- at Skārah Dherī (ekuṇa, taṇayeshu).

From the Peshāwar District we have -n- and n on the Kanishka casket (Kanishkasa or Kaneshkasa, sarvasatvanam, Mahasenasa, acharyana, sarvastivatina, but apparently nagrare, navakarmia), i. e. the state of things is the same as in the Dhp., but the role of the two signs is inverted; we find -n- on the Shāh-jī-ki-Dherī brick (Budhasena), and in the Peshāwar Museum inscriptions, nos. 20 (Travašakurana, danamukha, khanavide), 21 (kshunami, khanavide, Vasudevena, Idradevaputrena, vastavena, bramhanena, danas[y]a) and 1938 (Minamdrasa).

Still farther west we have n both as initial and between vowels at Bīmarān (niyatide, danamuhe, sarvabudhana) and Wardak (naragra, imena, arogadakshinae, &c.), while Kurram (namaruva, tanuvakammi, acharyana, &c.) and Hidda (navakarmiena, &c.) have n in both positions.

In the south we have the Sui Vihār inscription with its marked Sanskritization, where n and n are distinguished as in Sanskrit (Nagadata, Kaneshkasya, Damane, &c., but vihārasvamiņim), the Mohenjo Daro fragments (maņo, i. e. probably bramaņo) and Tor Pherai (acharyanam, sarvastivadinam, pitrinam, sarvasatvanam).

The impression left by this state of affairs is that intervocalic n and n had the same sound at least over the greater part of the territory, and that the sound was probably a

cerebral. The signification of the two letters was consequently lost sight of, the traditional writing acting as a check on the development of a consistent orthography. It is probable that the Dhp. most clearly shows the actual state of things in the greater part of the Kharoshthi area, but it would be unjustified to correct the actual texts. I shall, therefore, stick to the transliteration used by Professor Bühler, in order to preserve the actual evidence of the records, and only occasionally add suggestions within parentheses.

Other nasals.

With regard to other nasals we may note that there is no sign for the guttural in, which can only be expected to occur before k and g sounds. The palatal  $\tilde{n}$  is found both as an initial and between vowels and will be mentioned below in connexion with compound consonants.

M is used both as an initial and between vowels. In the Dhp. intervocalic v sometimes occurs as m; thus nama, Skr. nāvam B 35; sabhamu, Skr. sambhavam A1 3, O 18. Such is occasionally also the case where -v- is derived from -p-; thus viñamani, Pāli viññāpanim O 23; pramuņi, Pāli pāpuņi A1 3. This is also the case with the p of the enclitic punah; thus va mano B 24, cf. no mina in the third pillar edict of Asoka, &c. We may perhaps draw the inference that there was a tendency to pronounce intervocalic m as a nasalized v, but no indications of such a pronunciation can be found in Kharoshthī inscriptions.

Final m.

A final m should be expected to become m; thus sariram, matapitaram (Patika), ayam (Taxila vase), &c. Very frequently, however, the anusvāra is left unmarked; thus sarvabudhana (Patika), sarvasatvaņa (Pājā, Taxila scroll, Wardak, &c.), prama (Lion Cap.), &c.

Before vowels such an m is sometimes treated as intervocalic; thus evam asa (Kurram), sarmam arthae (Skārah Dherī).

The same is occasionally also the case in the Dhp.; thus parijinam ida ruvu Cvo 3, yam eva Cvo 5, tam aho B 3, &c. Writings such as jinav iva B 41 ff., pushav iva Cro 1, and muhutav iva Cro 21 point to the same pronunciation as in the case of -m-. And frequently final am is treated in the same way before vowels as before consonants, where it occurs as a, o, or u; thus jhana aprañasa B 16, maga alasu A3 9, kamu anuvichidao B 23; cf. lohaguda gili B 34, aho bromi B 1, artha dharmu ji B 11. The last example shows that the presence of the nasal was still felt, because the ch of cha does not become 1 after vowels. It is probable that the same is the case in Kharoshthī inscriptions, cf. aya de, Skr. ayam te (Taxila scroll), yo cha, Skr. yach cha (Wardak), imo cha, Skr. idam cha (Ārā), where yo, imo seem to represent yain, imain, respectively, with the same o as we have found in the Dhp. Cf. also nisimo (Lion Cap.).

Nasals

With regard to the treatment of compounds consisting of a nasal and a stop, our beforestops. materials seem to point to a state of things of the same kind as in Sanskrit; thus Dhivhakara (Nowshera), if this stands for Dipamkara; pamcha- (Patika, Pājā, Peshāwar, 20, Hashtnagar), and perhaps prachu (Patika, Panjtar); mahamtasa, puyayamto (Patika), ateurena (Lion Cap.), paryata, a[m]tara (Wardak); samgha (Patika, Pājā, Taxila, and Bedadi ladles, Takht-i-Bāhī, Shahr-i-Nāpursān, Pālāṭū Dherī, Tor Dherai), sagha (Lion Cap., Jaulia, Zeda, Pālātū Dherī, Sahri Bahlol, Loriyan Tangai); muroda (Zeda), dada (Mānikiāla), a[m]dajo, avashadrigaņa (Wardak), Khamda (Loriyan Tangai), and perhaps Bhadu (Shahdaur); Anamda (Pājā), Idra (Peshāwar, 21), Dharmanadi (Jaulia), Balanamdi (Sui Vihār); bamdhava (Patika), kadhavaro (Lion Cap.), dukhak'amdha (Kurram); kuţibiņi (Dharmarājikā), kuţimbini (Sui Vihār); sambhatigra (Wardak), sambharae (Hidda).

> Some few instances, however, point in another direction, viz. aya de, Skr. ayam te (Taxila scroll), where t in the enclitic te is treated as belonging to the accented word, and perhaps Mumjavamda, Mumjanamda (Bīmarān), if this corresponds to Mūjavanta; Kamura (Lion Cap.), if it represents Skr. Kāmbojika.

In the Dhp. the rule is to pronounce voiceless stops with voice and to nasalize voiced stops after nasals. Thus paga, Skr. panka A¹ 5; saghai, Skr. samkhyāya B 27; paja, Skr. pancha B 37; anadara, Skr. anantara O 14; sabasu, Skr. sampasyan C<sup>vo</sup> 26; kuñaru, Skr. kuñjara A² 4; dana, Skr. danda B 39; vinadi, Skr. vindati A³ 9; banha, Skr. bandha O 29; udumaresha, Skr. udumbareshu B 40; gamhira, Skr. gambhīra B 6. In the case of ng, ngh we find a modified g, gh with a curve above or a hook below, which may signify a sound approaching n; cf. aṭhag'io, Skr. ashṭāngikaḥ A³ 4; sagh'a, Skr. samgha A³ 6, with a curve above g, gh, respectively.

A similar state of things can be traced in modern north-western dialects, where we have every reason for thinking of an old language of the same kind as the old north-western Prākrit, but overlaid by the vernaculars of the Middle Country, and where it is evidently old as shown by the Greek  $\Sigma \acute{a}\gamma\gamma a\lambda a$ .

In such circumstances it seems probable that the Dhp. represents the actual tendencies of the dialect better than the inscriptions, where the influence of tradition has been at work. It should not be overlooked that most instances of nasal compounds occur in Buddhist terms and names and in the date portion of the records, where the influence of the east is *a priori* likely to be felt.

Before semi-vowels and sibilants the anusvāra seems to have been sounded. With Anusvāra v we find samvardhaka (Māṇikiāla), samvatšara- (Patika, Mount Banj, Pāja, Sui Vihār), before semi-vowels and and, with change of v to b, sambatšarae (Takht-i-Bāhī, Ārā, Hidda); cf. siha ba, Skr. sibilants. simham iva Dhp. A¹ 6, &c. With s we have athavise (Sui Vihār), visami (Shakardarra), ekachaparisai (Ārā), padiasae, vasa (Māṇikiāla), but athavimsatihi (Hidda), prachamsae (Hidda), pratiyamso (Tor Dherai), padriyamsae (Wardak). In the Dhp. ms becomes s, i. e. s in ahitsa, Skr. ahimsā A⁴ 8; satsana, Skr. samsanna A³ 9; satsara, Skr. samsāra A² 6, &c. The same s seems to occur in the Peshāwar inscription, no. 347, where I read samtsare,

There are some few words where Skr. has a nasal preceded by a stop.  $\mathcal{J}\tilde{n}$  seems Nasals after to become  $\tilde{n}$ ; thus jaŭvañae and probably  $\tilde{n}atiga$  (Patika),  $\tilde{n}ati$  (Taxila scroll, Dharmastops. rājikā),  $\tilde{n}avitrave$ , yuvaraña (Lion Cap.), viñana (Kurram), cf. praña Dhp. B 16. In Wardak we have natigra for jñātika as in later Sauraseni, but then there are also other indications that the Wardak inscription does not represent the local vernacular, but a more eastern language brought to the country by foreign settlers.

Tm in the word  $\bar{a}tman$  has been preserved in  $\bar{A}r\bar{a}$  (atmanasa), while it becomes p in Māṇikiāla (apanaga) and tv in the silver scroll (atvana) and a Dharmarājikā inscription (atvanasa); cf. atvana Dhp.  $A^1$  5. On a Sirkap seal we find ata, and in the Tor Dherai inscriptions taniya should perhaps be restored as ataniya, Skr.  $\bar{a}tman\bar{a}ya$ . The tv in this word is already found in the Mānsehrā edicts of Aśoka. The  $\bar{A}r\bar{a}$  form is a Sanskritism, and the old genuine form is evidently atva, which became appa in the east and tended to become atta in the west.

Y is not changed to j as in later literary Prākrits; thus yuvaraña (Lion Cap.), ayu y. (Patika), ayam (Taxila vase), aya (Taxila scroll), &c. We have already seen that -aya-, -ayi-occasionally become e, as in other Prākrits, and also in other respects we can trace a weakening of intervocalic y; cf. the dative termination of a- and ā-bases (hidasuhae, nivanae, puyae, Taxila scroll), forms such as ae for ayam (Karnāl), Apelae, dharmakhae (Hidda), Dharmapriena, Budhapriasa, but upajayasa (Mamāne Dherī), bhui (Zeda), Aspaiu, dhamaute, Udiliakehi (Jamālgarhī). On the other hand, prachagra, Skr. pratyaya;

uvagrasa, Skr. upayāsa (Kurram); udakavaya, Skr. udayavyaya (Dhp. B 13, C<sup>ro</sup> 18), dhoreka, Skr. dhaureya (ibidem, C<sup>vo</sup> 39) point to a strongly fricative sound, which may, however, have been a local feature adopted in the literary form of the language.

y-compounds. Compounds containing a y are, broadly, treated as in other Prākrits.

Ky probably becomes kk; thus Śakamuni, -ni (Patika, Lion Cap., Tīrath, Jauliā), but Sanskritized Śakya- (Kurram, Wardak). Gy appears as g in aroga (Taxila scroll, Dharmarājikā, Shahr-i-Nāpursān, Jamālgarhī, Wardak), and jy as j in Jetha (Ārā), raja (Panjtār, Zeda).

Ty regularly appears as ch; thus prach[e\*]ga, mitramacha, parichago (Taxila scroll), thapaicham (Sui Vihār), upakachaa (Zeda), prachagra, patichasammupate (Kurram), prachamsae (Hidda), sacha (Yākubi). Forms such as padiasa (Mānikiāla), padriyamsa (Wardak) are doublets due to the cerebralizing influence of r, and pratiyamso, parityagato (Tor Dherai) are Sanskritisms.

Thy only occurs in mithyaga (Wardak). The Dhp. form michha A<sup>2</sup> 2 is, however, certainly the regular one.

Dy appears as j in avija (Kurram). If ayasa in the Taxila scroll represents Skr. adyasya, the development has been  $\bar{a}dya$ ,  $\bar{a}ja$ ,  $\bar{a}ja$ ,  $\bar{a}ya$ , as would be natural considering the connexion with  $\bar{a}di$ . With regard to the Pāli doublet  $\bar{a}diya$  cf. the treatment of -ry-.

Dhy is found as j in upajayasa (Mamane Pheri), where we should expect -jh-.

Py occurs in arupyata (Wardak), but the Dhp. p, i. e. pp, in forms such as *lipadi* O 22, is probably more genuine.

Of nasals in connexion with y we have puña, Skr. puṇya (Panjtār and perhaps Takht-i-Bāhī), raña, Skr. araṇya (Kurram, Hidda, Jamālgarhī), and sama, Skr. samyak (Taxila scroll). Cf. from the Dhp. puñe B 3, uvašamadi Cro 7.

R is generally well preserved. In palichhina (Lion Cap.), jalayuga (Wardak) it has become l between vowels. Stray examples of this change are found in most Prākrits. In Kharraosta (Lion Cap.) the doubled r perhaps denotes a modified sound; cf. rr in Khotanī Saka.

r-compounds. Also in compounds r shows great power of resistance, and this feature is a marked characteristic of this dialect, which distinguishes it from other Prākrits and reminds us of modern Dardic. I shall begin with such compounds where r is the first part.

There are no examples of rk; but the Dhp. has  $udarka ext{ O 5}$ ; rkh is found in the foreign title meridarkha (Swāt vase), where, however, the r has been transposed and has cerebralized the preceding d in the Taxila plate (meridakha); rg occurs in s. gapade (Skārah Pherī), where we must probably read svarga-, and rgh in dirgha (Tor Pherai). Cf. from the Dhp.  $mago ext{ A}^3$  3 ff.,  $drigha ext{ O 20}$ .

In connexion with palatals we find r in the foreign loan-words erjhuna (Takht-i-Bāhī) and marjhaka (Zeda), where jh seems to denote a voiced s.

Rt is preserved in Kartiya, horamurta (Māṇikiāla); rth in aṇugraharthae (Ārā), hidasuhartham (Kanishka casket), arthae (Skārah Pherī); rd in Khardaa (Lion Cap.), chaturdiše (Tor Pherai), while it becomes d in chatrudiša (Lion Cap.), and chatudiše, chadudiše (Taxila and Bedadi ladles, Takht-i-Bāhī, Pālāṭū Pherī, Sahr-i-Bahlol). Of rdh we have sardha (Shahdaur), vardhie (Patika), vardhase (Zeda), samvardhaka (Māṇikiāla), but sadha (Lion Cap., Māṇikiāla), sadaviyari (Loriyān Tangai), vaḍha- (Shahdaur). The Dhp. has nivartadi O 16, aṇuvatadi C<sup>vo</sup> 33; artha B 11, O 25, atha C<sup>vo</sup> 7 ff., C<sup>vo</sup> 14; nabhimardadi A³ 7, abhimadadi C<sup>vo</sup> 35; vardhadi C<sup>vo</sup> 34, vaḍhadi A³ 8. The r accordingly seems to have been weakly sounded and to have had a tendency to coalesce with dh to ḍh.

Rm is sometimes preserved; thus dharma (Kanishka casket, Sui Vihār, Hidda,

Mamāne Dherī, Jauliā), but dhama (Lion Cap., Taxila scroll, Dharmarājikā, Pālāṭū Dherī, Jamālgaṛhī); -karmi- (Kanishka casket, Māṇikiāla, Hidda), but -kami- (Patika), -varma (Kurram), sarma (Skārah Dherī). Late forms such as Bosavaruma (Lahore, no. 255), Budhavaruma (Jamālgaṛhī), Budhoruma (Shahr-i-Nāpursān, Loriyān Tangai), Saghoruma (Loriyān Tangai) point to a sounded r. The Dhp. has both rm and m: dharma O 25, B 22, &c., dhama A¹ 5, A² 6 ff. It is difficult to judge about this state of things, but it is noticeable that the oldest inscriptions have m.

Ry occurs after long vowel as ri: bharia (Jamālgaṛhī), ayaria (Lion Cap.), but also as ry: bharya (Dharmarājikā, Ārā), acharya (Kanishka casket, Sui Vihār, Kurram, Wardak, Tor Dherai), and even as y (bhaya-, Taxila Meridarkh plate). After a short vowel we have ry in paryata (Wardak). Similarly in the Dhp. ariana A³ 13, suriu A² 3; virya Cro 17; samaïrya O 17, bramhayirya O 9; bramhayiya B 27, viyava Cro 17, kuya Cro 32, jiyadi Cro 21, &c.

Rv is usually preserved; thus purva (Patika, Māṇikiāla, Uṇd), sarva (Patika, Lion Cap., Pājā, Taxila scroll, Kanishka casket, Sui Vihār, Kurram, Hidda, Ārā, Bīmarān, Jamālgarhī, Wardak, Tor Dherai), nirvana (Hidda), &c. Only occasionally we find sava (Taxila vase and volute bracket) and sanva (Māṇikiāla), nivana (Taxila scroll).

The compounds rs and rsh will be dealt with below; rh occurs in arahana (Taxila scroll), where it has been treated as in other Prākrits.

Also after stops r is usually preserved.

Kr occurs in nokrame (Shakardarra), Kronina (Lion Cap.), Munijukrita, Minijukrita (Sirkap silver plates); gr in agra (Lion Cap., Māṇikiāla, Hidda, Wardak), graha (Lion Cap., Kanishka casket, Jamālgaṛhī, Zeda, Kurram, Ārā, Sahr-i-Bahlol, Wardak, Tor Dherai), Vagra- (Wardak), grama (Yākubi). The state of things in the Dhp. is similar; cf. akrodhu B 2, gradhadi A³ 2.

Tr is of frequent occurrence. Thus atra (Patika, Shakardarra, Wardak), itra (Dewai), ayatra (Sui Vihār), etra (Māṇikiāla), tatra (Panjtār), putra (Patika, Lion Cap., Mount Banj, Takht-i-Bāhī, Pājā, Kāldarra, Panjtār, Taxila scroll, Sirkap vase, silver cups, and seals, Dharmarājikā, Sui Vihār, Māṇikiāla, Kurram, Ārā, Bīmarān, Peshāwar, no. 21, Wardak), mitra (Shahdaur, Pājā, Taxila scroll, Sirkap seal, Dharmarājikā, Zeda, Hidda, Wardak, Shahr-i-Nāpursān, Loriyān Tangai, Jauliā), kshatrava, pa (Patika, Sirkap vase and seal, Lion Cap., Zeda, Māṇikiāla), -trata (Sirkap volute, Sui Vihār), -latra (Sirkap seals), Chetra (Uṇḍ), Travasakura (Peshāwar, no. 20). Śveḍra (Kurram) is perhaps a slip for Śvetra. In tisatimae (Takht-i-Bāhī) and taena (Māṇikiāla) we can, in face of this overwhelming evidence, which is also supported by the Dhp. (trihi, treviju O 7, ahoratra B 7, &c.), hardly see anything else than mere slips.

Dr is found in Idradeva (Peshāwar, no. 21), Inidraseņa (Dharmarājikā), Mudrasata (Sirkap seal), droņivadra (Shakardarra), where the final dra perhaps also represents dra. Cf. drumapatra Dhp. B 28, bhadrasu A<sup>3</sup> 15.

Pr is also quite common. Thus prachagra (Kurram), prachu (Patika, Panjtār), pratreśra, prama (Lion Cap.), prati-, -di- (Patika, Lion Cap., Taxila scroll, vase, and Meridarkh plate, Kanishka casket, Sui Vihār, Māṇikiāla, Kurram, Hidda, Tor Dherai), praśishya (Sui Vihār), Prothavada, -ta (Fatehjang, Hashtnagar, Loriyān Tangai, Shakardarra), pria (Mamāne Dherī). I have already remarked that an r sometimes coalesces with a following t and th; thus padi- (Māṇikiāla), padri- (Wardak), pradhravi, padhravi (Lion Cap.), padhama (Panjtār) as compared with prathama (Takht-i-Bāhī), padhama (Jamālgarhī). From the Dhp. we may compare pridipramoju B 13, prañasa B 17, padi B 18, &c.

Br is represented by bramhanena (Peshāwar, no. 21), Bramadatasa (Sirkap seal),

bramha (Mohenjo Daro), cf. bramhano Dhp. O 1 ff. For bhr we have bhrata, da (Patika, Lion Cap., Taxila vase, Wardak, and perhaps Sirkap silver vase and Māṇikiāla), but bhamiteshu (Yākubi); cf. abha Dhp. A<sup>2</sup> 3. Bhr is probably the correct writing.

With regard to l it may be noted that there are no indications of the existence of a cerebral l. Lg becomes g in Utaraphagune (Zeda).

V is well preserved both as an initial and between vowels, though there are, as we have seen, instances of m for intervocalic v in the Dhp. If Pispasri (Lion Cap.) has anything to do with visvasa, the change of v to p must be explained as an anticipation of the following p in sp. In the Peshawar Museum inscription, no. 4, we seem to have gavhra, which perhaps stands for bhagava; cf. Makavha Dhp.  $A^2$  1 and Dhivhakara (Nowshera).

v-compounds. Old tv is well preserved; cf. satva (Pājā, Taxila scroll, Kanishka casket, Sui Vihār, Kurram, Hidda, Wardak, Jamālgaṛhī), which is also found in the Dhp. (e. g. B 1). Only in Ārā (ekachaparisai, sa[pa]na) and Kāldarra (sapaṇa) we find p instead. The v-sound, however, seems to have been little pronounced in unaccented terminations. For the Dhp. has gerunds such as pramajeti A² 3, parivajeti A² 8, baheti B 27, and in utvari B 37 tv is written for t, cf. Pāli uttarim. A similar conclusion seems to be derivable from Dhp. writings such as vidvara, which apparently stands for vidhura (Cvo 18) and udhvaradha for uddharadha (A¹ 5). We are therefore justified in explaining forms such as karita, abhusavita, ayimita (Lion Cap.), where t and not the modified tr is written so that we cannot well think of an old intervocalic t, as gerunds.

Sibilants.

The chief peculiarity of the dialect, which distinguishes it from all other Prākrits and has its nearest parallel in the modern Dardic languages, is the preservation of the three Sanskrit sibilants s, sh, and s, which are mainly distributed as in Sanskrit; thus sarira, pratresra (Lion Cap.), shoḍase (Fatehjang), ushaḍasa (Taxila scroll, Zeda), masasa (Patika).

When Skr. śaka occurs as saka (Shahdaur, Lion Cap.), the reason is that the word is an Iranian loan-word in its indigenous form. The terminations -isa, -usa of i- and u-bases have their s from the a-bases. The s in Busaparo (Lion Cap.) is also found in Skr. busa, while Bosavaruma (Lahore pedestal) is an un-Indian name, only the last part of the compound being Indian. In Vespasi (Māṇikiāla) we have the well-known continuation of the articulation of the preceding sp, cf. Dhp. vispasa B 25. The apparent h for s in mahasa (Uṇd) is probably misread for s.

Voiced s.

There are, on the other hand, some indications which seem to reveal a tendency towards a voiced pronunciation of intervocalic s. Thus we find majh[e] for Skr. māse (Māṇikiāla) and several other instances in the form of the dialect occurring in the Turkestan documents.<sup>1</sup>

Forms such as Vajheshka (Ārā), erjhuṇa (Takht-i-Bāhī), marjhaka (Zeda) seem to show that jh was used in order to render an intervocalic z, a sound which was foreign to most Indian languages, while j seems to be used for both intervocalic and initial z in Kujula (coins), jaŭvañae (Patika), cf. Greek κοζουλο, ζαοου, and Jihonika, i.e. Zeionises (Sirkap vase). We also know of other attempts at rendering the sound, viz. y in Aya, Azes (Shahdaur and coins), yavuga (coins), and s in Kusuluka, Kusulua (Patika, Lion Cap.) as compared with the Kujula, κοζουλο of coins.

In addition to the form majh[e] for  $m\bar{a}se$  we also find masye (box lid, Hidda, Wardak),

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Turner, JRAS, 1927, p. 232, where attention is drawn to a similar voicing of intervocalic s in some dialects of Shīnā. A similar state of things is also found in Tīrahī; cf. spaz, 'sister'; azi, 'mouth'.

and it seems probable that also sy was used in order to render an intervocalic z. The reason must then be that old sy in certain circumstances became z.

In the paper quoted above Professor Turner has tried to show that such was actually the case inter alia in the genitive termination -asya, and he has drawn attention to the fact that -asya is, in the Turkestan documents, frequently written asra or, in the transliteration of the editors, asa. The same orthograph is found in some Indian inscriptions (Wardak, once in Mamane Pheri, Peshawar, no. 1, and, alternating with -asya, in Tor Dherai). We must therefore apparently explain the sr in Pispasri (Lion Cap.) in the same way.

In the Turkestan documents we sometimes also find the same sign sr as an initial, in words such as sra, Skr. sa; sradha, Skr. sardham, srarva, Skr. sarvah. Similarly we find sra for sa (Wardak), syarva for sarva and sratva for satva (Tor Dherai). possible that also here the same sound is intended. In the Dhp., however, we sometimes find sh in similar cases; thus sha, where Pali has so  $C^{ro}$  39 (but sh in the parallel passage  $A^2$ 3), shag'a, ashag'a (B 3). It is therefore possible that the sound had a cerebral colour, but we can hardly do more, at the present state of our knowledge, than to register the facts.

The state of affairs in the Saka language of the Khotan country, which is largely influenced by the north-western Prākrit, also points to the existence of a tendency to pronounce intervocalic s with voice; cf. āysana, Skr. āsana; uvaysi, Skr. upāsaka. We cannot, however, decide whether this tendency was much pronounced or universal. Nor can we say whether it is due to the influence of neighbouring Iranian tongues or developed independently.

A similar voicing of intervocalic s might be inferred from the regular writing -sr- for -s- on the Lion Cap.: isra, pratresra, chatrudisra, but Sakamuni, sarira, Sudasa.

In compounds with other letters the sibilants undergo certain changes, sometimes in s-comaccordance and sometimes at variance with other Prākrits.

Sy occurs as s, i. e. probably ss; thus Kasaviya (Taxila ladle), Kasavo (Jaulia), pasadi (Dhp. A<sup>3</sup> 1).

Śr becomes sh; thus shamaṇa,- na (box lid, Mamāne Pherī, Shahr-i-Nāpursān, Pālāṭū Pherī, Jauliā), shavaa (Māṇikiāla, Jamālgarhī), shadhadaņa (Takht-i-Bāhī). In the word Sravaņa it is always retained (Pājā, Panjtār, Kāldarra), probably as a learned orthograph. The sri of the Lion Cap. is not certain. The Dhp. has shamano B 39, shavaka A44, shutvaņa A3 10; śramaņo O 17, śotria O 5, śeļho A3 4, &c.

Also r's seems to become sh; cf. phasha (Kurram), phashai Dhp. A3 10, phushamu B 25, samhashadi B 13, but darsana Cvo 37, bhayadasima B 32.

Sv is preserved in Svedravarma (Kurram), but changed to sp in [vi\*]spasu (Mānsehrā), saspa, Pispasri (Lion Cap.), Vespasi (Māṇikiāla), Isparaka (Taxila ladle), Vispamitra (Sirkap seal), Aspaiu (Jamālgarhī). The Dhp. has vispa B 26, &c., but asa A3 15. seems as if the development began in the neighbourhood of i.

The cerebral sh occurs in several compounds.

sh-com-

Shk is found in foreign names such as Kanishka (Kanishka casket, Zeda, Sui Vihār, pounds. Māṇikiāla, Ārā), Vajheshka (Ārā), Hoveshka (Wardak). In pukaraṇi, pukariṇi (Kāldarra, Pāthyār, Karnāl) it becomes k, while the Dhp. has pushkara (O 22), which is evidently the genuine dialect form.

Sht seems to be retained in shashti (Shahdaur), where, however, the reading is uncertain. Usually it becomes th; thus shathi (Mānsehrā), atha (Dewai, Sui Vihār, Hidda, Uṇḍ), yaṭhi (Sui Vihār). In aḍhashaṭhi (Mānsehrā) we find the change to ḍh, which is already found in the Asoka inscriptions and which seems to be due to a shortening of the resultant *tth* to *th*, in the same way as ādya seems to have become ājja, āja, āya in the Taxila scroll. The Dhp. has th; thus pravithasa B 12, 14.

Shith also becomes it; thus kanitha (Lion Cap.), Prothavada, -ta (Fatehjang, Hashtnagar, Loriyan Tangai), Jetha (Peshawar, no. 20, Ārā), Vasetha (Jamalgarhi). In the base sthā this form is common where Skr. has shih; thus preihavetiye (Taxila gold plate), pratițhavita, -da (Swat vase, Patika, Lion Cap.), prețhavide (Jamalgarhi), pratițhana (Sui Vihār), pradi(ti)thaveti (Kurram, Peshāwar, no. 4), parithaveti (Wardak). Sometimes, however, the forms of the uncompound stha have been preserved; thus pratithaveti (Patika), pratithavito (Taxila vase), pratistavita (Taxila scroll and Meridarkh plate), pratistapita (Hidda), paristavida (box lid), pratistavayati (Mānikiāla). The Dhp. usually has th; thus setho A34, thanchi O24, pravadatho, bhumatha A316. Once, however, A36, we find . dista (where Pali has uttitthe), which seems to represent atishtha or atishthan.

Shth seems to occur in the foreign name Hashthunä (Wardak).

Shp seems to become sh in Dhp. pusha Cro 1, if we have not here to do with a doublet pushya. The name Poshapuria (Ārā) is probably derived from this word.

Shn occurs as sh with a curve above in tasha (Kurram); cf. tasha Dhp. B 45. In Kanhiāra we have Krishayasa with a dot above the sh. Here the Brāhmī has shn, and it is possible that the dot is meant to mark n. It seems, however, more probable that shn became a modified, perhaps aspirated, sh. I shall transliterate sh'.

Shy seems to become s in the Dhp.; thus manusana B 4. The form manusha Cro 6 is shown by the metre to stand for mānusha. Forms such as eshidi B 35, karishadi A2 6 may be due to a change of ya to i before shy became s. In the inscriptions we have Kashyava (Bedadi, Pālāṭū Dherī) for Kāśyapa, which seems to prove that shya was felt and pronounced as sa. The writing sishya in the Sui Vihār inscription seems to be due to the marked Sanskritization of this record.

Rsh occurs as sh; thus vasha (Muchai, Takht-i-Bāhī, Kāldarra, Skārah Pherī). The Dhp. has vihashidi A<sup>2</sup> 6, but sarshava O 22. The word kahapana (Shahdaur) shows a different treatment in all Prakrits. It is a technical term, which seems to have been borrowed from one source.

The dental sibilant occurs in several compounds.

Sk occurs as k in kadhavaro (Lion Cap.), kanhana Dhp. B 13. In samk'ara (Kurram, Lahore school scene), dukhak'amdha (Kurram) there is a vertical above the ka, which may point to a slight aspiration. And the Dhp. has sakhacha, i. e. probably satskritya O 4, saghara, i. e. samghara, Skr. samskāra A<sup>3</sup> 1, which point in the same direction.

Ksh is usually preserved, though we cannot say exactly how it was pronounced. It is written with a sign which is different from the palatal chh and is used for ksh in Sanskrit texts from Niya. We have kshatrapa, -va (Patika, Lion Cap., Sirkap vase, Zeda, Māņikiāla), kshaharata (Patika), Śivarakshita (Shahdaur, Bīmarān, Taxila ladle and seal), Budharakshita (Jaulia, Jamalgarhi, Loriyan Tangai), Samgharakshita (Bedadi), Rakshila (Lion Cap.), Kshema (Patika), Takshasila (Taxila scroll and ladle, Dharmarājikā), dakshiņa (Taxila scroll and Meridarkh plate, Dharmarājikā, Jamālgarhī, Naugrām, Shahr-i-Nāpursān, Wardak, Mamāne Pherī), pakshe (Takht-i-Bāhī), kshuṇa, kshuna (Zeda, box lid, Kurram, Hidda, Ārā, Und, Mamāne Dherī, Peshāwar, no. 21), bhikshu (Sui Vihār, Jaulia). Occasionally we find the Sauraseni kh; thus khanasa (Dewai), Takhasila (Patika, Taxila vase), bhikhu (Lion Cap.), akha (Mathurā lion), dharmakhae (Hidda). The state of things in the Dhp. is similar; thus kshaya A<sup>1</sup> 3, chakshuma A<sup>3</sup> 3, kshiravayo B 54, bhikshave A<sup>2</sup> 5, B 53, &c., but occasionally khano A<sup>1</sup> 4, pradimukhe B 17, chakhuma A<sup>3</sup> 4,

s-compounds. bhikhu B 9, 17, and even aveha Cvo 31, which presupposes an uncompound kh. These exceptions may find their explanation in the Ardhamagadhi original from which the text was translated, and it is perhaps probable that the kh of the inscriptions is due to the influence of more eastern vernaculars, which was sure to be felt in the north-west and especially in Taxila, the old seat of learning.

Also khs occurs, in the local name of the Taxila country, Chukhsa (Patika, Sirkap vase), where the modern Chachh points to an old compound sound.

Ts occurs as ts in the common samvatsara, sambatsara (Patika, Mount Banj, Takhti-Bāhī, Pājā, Sui Vihār, Hidda, Ārā). In the Dhp. this development has taken place where ts was followed by y (matsa Cxviiivo 6, bhetsidi Cvo 3), and also, as already stated, where t had been inserted between a nasal and s (ahitsai A<sup>4</sup> 8, satsana A<sup>3</sup> 9, satsara A<sup>2</sup> 6, bhametsu B 34). It is not found where t belongs to a postposition; thus abhusavita (Lion Cap), usua (Dhp. C<sup>v0</sup> 27).

St seems to become the when initial and to be retained between vowels. thuṇa (Jamālgaṛhī), thuva (Taxila vase, Lion Cap.), and, with deaspiration, apparently tuva (Jamālgarhī lamp), thuba (Kurram, Hidda, Wardak), and apparently tubaga (Loriyan Tangai), while the apparent thuva (Mount Banj) seems to be influenced by the base sthā; further, sakrastana (Lion Cap.), sarvastivadi, -du (Lion Cap., Kanishka casket, Kurram, Tor Dherai), vastava (Taxila scroll, Peshāwar, no. 21, Yākubi), śasta (Mathurā elephant), Kharraosta (Lion Cap.), sasta (box lid, Hidda, Wardak). Similarly the Dhp. has astagachhadi O 15, hasta B 10, &c.

Of sth most examples belong to the base sth $\bar{a}$  and have been mentioned above. Other examples are stitive (Swāt vase) and sivathala (Panjtār).

Of sp the only example is phasha, Skr. sparša (Kurram), where it occurs as an initial. The Dhp. has phashaï A3 10, phushamu B 25, but svihao B 20.

In the Dhp. sm seems to become sv and further s; thus svadi, Skr. smriti A<sup>2</sup> 5, A<sup>4</sup> 2, Cro 42, pradisvado A<sup>2</sup> 9, anusvaro B 22 f.; sadana Cro 43, tasa, yasa, Skr. tasmat, yasmāt O 16, 17; asvi, parasa, Skr. asmin, parasmin A3 6, imasa, Skr. imasmin A2 6. In samhashadi B 13 we apparently have mh for mism.

In Kharoshthī inscriptions we have only examples of the locative termination asmi. We find asi (written isa and ase) in hasasi (Taxila gold plate) and khanasa (Dewai); ami in ima[mi] (Patika), rajami (Panjtār, Zeda), gahami (silver scroll); ramnammi, viharammi, parigrahammi, thubammi (Kurram); kshunami, kshunami, &c. (Zeda box lid, Kurram, Peshāwar, no. 21, Hidda, Ārā, Mamāne Dherī), Khavadamri, viharamri (Wardak), The reading athavimsatihi (Hidda) is suspect. If it is correct, it points to an aspiration, which is apparently also indicated in the writing mri. It seems to be difficult to explain the forms asi and ami as belonging to one and the same dialect and period.

Sy is common in the termination of the genitive singular. In Sui Vihār we apparently have the Sanskrit form. In other cases sy in such forms seems to have become ss and, as already remarked, apparently further z.

H is on the whole well preserved; cf. hasasi, deha (Taxila gold plate). In Kharraosta (Lion Cap.) an -h- seems to have been dropped. The late sadaviyari (Loriyan Tangai) may represent sārdhamvichārin and cannot prove any tendency to drop intervocalic h. Hm seems to become mh; thus bamhanena (Peshāwar, no. 21). Also bama-, however, occurs (Sirkap seal, Mohenjo Daro?), and the Dhp. has both bramhana and bramana.

The materials at our disposal are not sufficient for a complete sketch of the in-Inflexion of flexional system, and I can only draw attention to some characteristic features.

There are no traces of a dual, if we abstract from dva Dhp. O 13. The plural is used instead; thus padani (Tīrath). There are some indications to show that the neuter

had a tendency to be replaced by the masculine. In the Dhp. we still have the nominative in  $a\dot{m}$ ; thus niratha ba kadigaru  $C^{vo}$  14, sahasa bi  $C^{ro}$  7, where the ensuing b shows that the anusvāra was sounded or felt. Other forms end in o (paramo suha  $C^{vo}$  24), and occasionally perhaps in e (puñe, pave B 3). In the plural we have pavaṇi kamaṇi  $C^{ro}$  26, pavaṇa anuthulaṇi O 1, and probably astiṇi  $C^{vo}$  16.

In the inscriptions there seems to be a tendency to confound the neuter with the masculine. In Yākubi and Panjtār we can apparently distinguish between the nominative singular neuter, which ends in e (daṇamukhe, Yākubi; karavide sivathale, Panjtār), and the masculine in o (jinakumaro rachito, Yākubi; prachu deso Panjtār). In most inscriptions, however, the form is the same in both genders; thus the frequent danamukha is not distinguished in form from male bases. In the plural we have padaņi in Tīrath, but pratithavidra ime sarira in the Swāt vase.

a bases.

Most examples belong to the a-declension, which shows the usual tendency to influence the inflexion of other bases.

The nominative singular of neuter bases in the Dhp. has already been mentioned. The corresponding masculine form ends in o, u, or a, and the metrum shows that the termination was long; thus akrodhu anuvayasa vipramutu B 2, kaena savrudo bhikhu B 8. In the inscriptions the state of things is as follows:

We find o, alone or together with a, in the following inscriptions: Kanhiāra (aramo), Patika (Liako Kusuluko, putro, Patiko, prachu deso, navakamika, kshatrapa Liaka), Lion Cap. (avarajo, Naüludo, Kharraosto, niyatritro, thuva, sagharama), Mount Banj (kuo), Kala Sang (kuo eduo), Taxila silver scroll (parichago), gold plate (loo), vase (thuvo pratithavito), Meridarkh plate (thubo pratistavito), Jauliā (Kasavo, tathagato), Peshāwar, no. 1, from the Khudu Khel country (tubo, doubtful), Māṇikiāla (gushaṇavasasamvardhaka Lala dadaṇayago, horamurta, horamurto), Shakardarra (kuvo, khadao), Wardak (putra, Vagramaregra, aṇiḍajo, jalayuga, parivara, agrabhaga, vihara(n), parigraha, kadalayigra), Tor Dherai (pratiyamso, deyadharmo), Mohenjo Daro (-mano).

To the neuter may belong danamukho (Fatehjang, Mount Bhanj, Taxila ladle, Jauliã, where inscription 2 seems to have both the e and the o-mātrā, Peshāwar, no. 4, from the Khudu Khel country, Māṇikiāla, Shakardarra), danamuho (Dewai), sarira pratrithavitro, dhamadana (Lion Cap.).

E-forms are found in a series of records: Muchai (kue), Pājā (kue karite), Peshāwar, no. 5 (karavide), no. 20 (kue khaṇavide), no. 21 (khaṇavide), Kanishka casket (deyadharme, dasa Agisala ṇavakarmia), Zeda (khade kue), Kurram (sammudae, pratichasammupate, phasha, bhava), Hidda (dharmakhae), Ārā (khade, kupe), Mamāne Dherī (niryaïde ime deyadharme). Cf. the neuter bases daṇamukhe (Peshāwar, no. 20, Loriyān Tangai, Jamālgaṛhī, Zeda), daṇamukhe (Dharmarājikā, Pālāṭū Dherī), daṇamuhe (Shahr-i-Nāpursān, Bīmarān), daṇamukhe, -kha (Jamālgaṛhī, Zeda), daṇamukha (Pālāṭū Dherī), preṭhavide dhamaŭte oke (Jamālgaṛhī), uta, viñana, namaruva, shaḍrayadana, uvadana (Kurram), sarira pratistapita (Hidda), ṇiyatide (Bīmarān).

In Panjtār and Yākubi we have, as already stated, o in the masculine and e in the neuter; Mārguz has no neuter form, but a masculine in o (kuo), and only a-forms occur in Bedadi (dana) and Takht-i-Bāhī (parivara, shadhadana).

It will be seen that the o- and e-forms are distributed according to locality. The o-area in the north extends to the Indus, including the Mahāban range beyond the river, and in the south it comprises Mohenjo Daro and Tor Pherai. In Panjtār, Yākubi, and probably in Mārguz we have o in the masculine and e in the neuter. The districts to the west of the Indus have, with the above exceptions, e throughout. Only Wardak has o, another indication of an eastern origin.

We can accordingly distinguish between an eastern o-dialect and a western e-dialect. The e-forms cannot therefore be considered as Māgadhisms, but rather as links connecting the north-western Prākrit with Iranian forms such as we find in Sakish  $\ddot{a}$ ,  $\dot{i}$ , and comparable with the pronominal e-forms in modern Dardic.

The accusative singular of a-bases need not be further discussed after the remarks made above on the treatment of final am; cf. sariram, sampharamam (Patika), Khalamasa kumara, Maja kanitha, nisimo, pratresro, kadhavaro, Busaparo (Lion Cap.), sarira (Peshāwar, no. 4, Kurram, Wardak), jhava (Māṇikiāla), pratithanam, parivaram (Sui Vihār), &c.

The instrumental is of frequent occurrence and ends in -ena, -eṇa; thus utareṇa (Patika), Sihileṇa, Siharakshiteṇa (Taxila vase), &c. Only in two inscriptions we find a shortened form in e, i. e. probably ê, viz. Śuḍase kshatrave (Lion Cap.), Moike Urumujaputre (Panjtār). Lüders thought of a pluralis majestatis. The form alusie in the Dhp. (A³ 9), where the instrumental usually ends in -eṇa, shows, however, that we have to do with the singular.

The dative ends in ae, where the metre in the Dhp. shows that the a was long; thus hitae (Shahdaur), suhae (Pājā), nivanae (Taxila scroll), sambharae, prachamsae (Hidda), hitae, anugraharthae (Ārā), bhagae, padriasae (Wardak). The Sanskritized Sui Vihār plate has sukhaya, and in Zeda we seem to have upakachaa.

The only example of an ablative is *bhavagra* (Wardak); cf. from the Dhp. sadharma B 22, but also forms such as padanado, maranado C<sup>vo</sup> 7 f., suhadu C<sup>ro</sup> 39.

There are numerous examples of the genitive, which usually ends in asa as in the Dhp., where the metre shows that the syllable before s was long. A few examples will be sufficient: Sivarakshitasa (Shahdaur), masasa (Patika), Prothavadasa (Hashtnagar). In the Sanskritized Sui Vihār record we have -asya; thus maharajasya. Here we may have to do with the Sanskrit form. In Tor Dherai, where asya is used side by side with -asra (e.g. Mirasya and Mirasra), which is the common form in Wardak (e.g. Vagramaregrasra) and occurs once in Mamāne Dherī (margasirasra), we may be faced with a change of sy to z, as already remarked. And if danasa and not danasya stands in the Sanskrit passage in Peshāwar, no. 21, this pronunciation was perhaps also prevalent in the local Sanskrit.

The usual form of the locative ends in e; cf. the common samvatšare, &c. In addition to this we also have the pronominal termination asmin, which partly appears as asi, asa, partly as ami, ammi, ammi, i. e. probably amhi, as already stated. Forms such as pamchami (Hashtnagar), athami (Und) have been influenced by this termination, which may also be found in athavimsatihi (Hidda), if the reading is correct. Ekachaparisai (Ārā) and ma[si] (Mamāne Dherī) perhaps are mere slips.

In the nominative plural we have pradistavita (Taxila scroll), prachagra, samk'ara, uvagrasa (Kurram); padani (Tīrath), sarira pratithavidra (Swāt vase).

Of the accusative plural we find *bhratara sarva* (Patika), saman[u]motrakra (Lion Cap.).

The instrumental plural ends in ehi; thus sahaehi Udiliakehi (Jamālgarhī), budhehi, shavaehi (Māṇikiāla), sastehi (box lid, Hidda, Wardak). The form sarirehi in the Bīmarān inscription is perhaps a dative.

The genitive plural usually ends in ana, ana; thus budhana (Taxila scroll and vase, Bīmarān), budhana (Patika, Lion Cap.), &c. Only in the Kanishka casket, the Sui Vihār, and the Tor Dherai inscriptions we have anam.

The locative plural ends in eshu; thus sachabhamitesh[u] (Yākubi), taṇayesh[u] (Skārah Dherī).

ā-bases.

Feminine ā-bases form their nominative in a; thus karavita (Kāldarra), upasika, Balajaya (Sui Vīhar), vedana, tash'a (Kurram), thuna (Jamālgaṛhī), prapa (Tor Dherai). Other forms are, Accusative: prama (Lion Cap.); Instrumental: Abuholae (Lion Cap.), jaŭvañae (Patika); Dative: puyae (Patika, Lion Cap., &c.), dakshinae, dakshiniae (Taxila scroll, Dharmarājikā, Jamālgaṛhī, Shahr-i-Nāpursān, Naugrām, Wardak, Mamāne Dherī); Genitive: Sirae (Taxila gold plate), Sivae, Saphae, bhariae (Jamālgaṛhī); Locative: purvaye (Patika), purvae (Māṇikiāla), Takhasilae (Patika, Taxila vase), Takshasilae (Taxila scroll and spoon), if these forms do not represent Skr. Tākshasilake; Locative plural: [vi\*]-spasu (Mānsehrā).

*i*-bases.

Of i-bases we have, Nominative: jati (Taxila gold plate), jadi (Kurram), and in the Sanskrit portion of Peshāwar, no. 21, avaptir; Accusative: yaṭhim (Sui Viḥār); Instrumental, apparently abhibhuti (Hidda); Dative: stitiye (Swāt vase), vardhie (Patika); Genitive: muņe (Wardak), but usually the a-base termination, thus munisa, muņisa (Tīrath, Swāt vase, Patika, Lion Cap., Kurram), Svarabudhisa (Māṇikiāla), Dharmabhutisa (Jauliā, uncertain), Mevakisa (Lion Cap.).

ika-bases.

Old ika or iya- bases have partly been confounded with the i-bases; cf. Kalui (Lion Cap.); Vespasisa, side by side with Vespasiena, Khudachie [na] (Māṇikiāla); and Locative: Arthamisiya (box lid, Wardak), perhaps influenced by feminine ī-bases.

in-bases.

The case is similar with old in-bases; thus Balasamisa (Takht-i-Bāhī), svamisa (Peshāwar, no. 1), Dharmanadisa (Jauliā), sadaviyarisa (Loriyān Tangai), dharmakathisya (Sui Vihār).

1-bases.

Of feminine *ī*-bases we have Nominative: pukariņi (Pāṭhyār), pukaraņi (Kāldarra), kuṭimbini, viharasvamiņi(m) (Sui Vihār); Instrumental: pitramahi Pispasria (Lion Cap.); Genitive: preṭhavetiye (Taxila gold plate).

u-bases.

Of *u*-bases we find, Accusative: *dhatu* (Taxila gold plate); Genitive: *bhaḍusa* (Shahdaur), *bhikhusa* (Lion Cap.), *bhikshusa* (Jauliã), *bhikshusya* (Sui Vihār), *Aspaïusa* (Jamālgaṛhī, where an old consonantic base has been transferred to the *u*-class); Nominative plural: *dhatuo* (Taxila scroll).

ri-bases.

Most examples of *ri*-bases belong to the compound *mātāpitṛi*, which is often treated as a singular. Thus Accusative: *matapitaram* (Patika); Genitive: *matapitu* (Taxila scroll, Meridarkh plate, volute), *madu pidu* (Takht-i-Bāhī), and, with transition into the ā-class, *matapitae* (Pājā). Plural forms are *matarapitaraṇa* (Ārā) and *matapitrinam* (Tor Dherai), the latter a clear Sanskritism. Of other instances we have the Nominatives *dhitra*, *matra* (Lion Cap.); Instrumental: *matra*, *bhrataa*, *dhitra* (Lion Cap.) *pitra* (Shahdaur); Genitive: *bhratara* (Māṇikiāla), *bhradara* (Wardak); Accusative plural: *bhratara* (Patika).

an-bases.

Of an-bases we have Nominative: yuvaraya (Lion Cap.), Śvedravarma (Kurram); Genitive: rajano (Shahdaur), yuvaraña (Lion Cap.), atvaņo (Taxila scroll).

Other consonantic bases.

An as-base is perhaps contained in the dative vardhase (Zeda). Of nt-bases we find Instrumental: bhagravata (Kurram); Genitive: bhakravatro (Lion Cap.), bhagavata (Patika), bhagravato (Swāt vase), bhagavato (Taxila scroll), bhagravatra (Bīmarān), bhagravada (Wardak), aropayata (Sui Vihār). In consonantal bases we can, however, trace, the common tendency towards vocalic inflexion; thus oke (Jamālgaṛhī), sarmam (Skārah Dherī), atvaņasa (Dharmarājikā), atmaņasa (Ārā); puyayamto (Patika), mahamtasa (Patika), bhagravatasa (Kurram), araha[mta\*]ņa (Taxila scroll).

In connexion with the inflexion of nouns we may note the tendency to string names and titles together into a quasi-compound, with only one case suffix at the end;

thus, pitramahi Pispasria, Hana dhitra, putra Śudase (Lion Cap.), mahadanapati Patikasa (Patika), erjhuna Kapasa, Mira Boyanasa (Takht-i-Bāhī), Gushanavasasanwardhaka Lala dadanayago (Māṇikiāla), maharaja rajatiraja Hoveshkasra (Wardak). Note also the double genitives in Nagadatasya aropayata (Sui Vihār), Śirae prethavetiye (Taxila gold plate).

There are only a few pronominal forms in the inscriptions.

Pronouns.

Of personal pronouns we have the genitives mahiya (Wardak), enclitic me (Panjtār, Ārā, Wardak) of the first, and de (Taxila scroll) of the second person.

The demonstrative bases sa, ta are represented by Nominative sa (Māṇikiāla, Wardak, Uṇd) and once with the modification of the initial mentioned above, sra (Wardak); Instrumental: teṇa (Taxila scroll); Genitive: tasa (Taxila gold plate, Patika, Māṇikiāla); Genitive plural: tesha (Hidda). Cf. from the base esha Nominative: esha (Wardak); Instrumental: edeṇa, -na (Māṇikiāla, Hidda); Locative feminine: etaye (Patika).

Of the nearer demonstrative we have Nominative: ayam (Taxila vase), aya (Taxila scroll, Kurram), yam, i. e. 'yam as in Sanskrit after o (Tor Pherai), ae (Karnāl), ime (Mamāne Pherī); Accusative: imam (Sui Vihār), imo (Lion Cap., Ārā); Instrumental: imeņa (Wardak); Genitive: asa (Kurram); Locative: imami (Patika). The forms iša (Lion Cap., Taxila scroll, Hidda, Wardak, Uṇḍ), iše (Zeda, box lid, Kurram, Peshāwar, no. 21, Ārā) are used in the same sense; Nominative plural: ime (Swāt vase, Taxila scroll).

Of the relative we find ya (Mānsehrā), yo (neuter, Taxila gold plate, Wardak); Genitive plural: yesha (Hidda).

The word atman is, as in other dialects, also used as a pronoun. Another word meaning 'own' is tanuvaka; cf. tanuvaka (Taxila scroll); tanuvakammi (Kurram).

Only a few numerals occur: e[ka] (Jamālgaṛhī), praṭhame (Takht-i-Bāhī), praḍhame Numerals. (Panjtār), paḍhammammi (Jamālgaṛhī), taeṇa (Māṇikiāla), chatru- (Lion Cap.), chadu- (Bedadi, Pālāṭū Phēri), chatu- (Taxila ladle, Takht-i-Bāhī, Tor Pherai), paṃchame, -mi (Patika, Hashtnagar), aṭhame, -mi (Dewai, Uṇḍ), daśahi (Hidda), ekadaśe (Sui Vihār), paṃchadaśe (Pājā, Peshāwar, no. 20), shoḍaśe (Fatehjang), viśami (Shakardarra), aṭhaviśe (Sui Vihār), aṭhaviṁśatihi (Hidda), ekachapariśaï (Ārā), shashṭi.. (Shahdaur), aḍhashaṭhi.. (Mānsehrā), aṭhasatatimae (Patika), ekaśitimaye (Muchai), tiśatimae (Takht-i-Bāhī), ekadaśa[śa\*]timae (Pājā), ekuṇachaduśatimae (Skārah Pherī).

Only a few verbal forms occur in the inscriptions. The Present, 3rd person Conjuga-singular, is represented by bhavati (Kurram), pratithaveti (Patika), pratithaveti (Peshāwar, tion. no. 4, Kurram), pratistavayati (Māṇikiāla), parithaveti (Wardak). Of the middle we have the 1st person, arthae (Skārah Pherī), and the 3rd plural, dadarim (Sui Vihār).

The Optative is represented by siati (Taxila gold plate, Mānsehrā), and the Imperative by hotu (Taxila scroll), bhavatu (Kanishka casket, Sui Vihār, Māṇikiāla, Hidda, Wardak), bharadu (Skārah Pherī), and, in Sanskrit, astu (Peshāwar, no. 21).

A Preterite is, perhaps, abhu (Shahdaur).

Of Present participles we have puyayamto (Patika) and aropayata (Sui Vihār), and of Past participles passive kata (Zeda), karavita, -da (Panjtār, Kāldarra, Peshāwar, no. 5), karita (Pājā, Nowshera), khada (Ārā), khadaa (Shakardarra), khanavida (Peshāwar, nos. 20, 21), pratithavita (Patika), pratithavidra (Swāt vase), pratithavita (Taxila vase), pradistavita (Taxila scroll), pratistapita (Hidda), pratrithavitra, niyatritra (Lion Cap.), niyatida (Bīmarān), likhida, uta (Kurram) niryaide (Mamāne Pherī).

The Gerund is represented by karita, abhusavita, ayimita (Lion Cap.), thapaicham (Sui Vihār), and likhiya (Ārā); and the Infinitive by navitrave (Lion Cap.).

# CONTENTS OF KHAROSHTHI INSCRIPTIONS

If we abstract from coins, seals, and seal-dies, almost every Kharoshthī inscription records some donation or pious act.

Objects of donations.

The digging of wells is frequently mentioned. Sometimes it is dedicated by an individual person (Pājā, Mount Banj, Peshāwar, no. 21, Zeda, Ārā), in other cases by some association (the Vashiśuga sahayaras, i. e. sahacharas, Muchai; the Pipalakhaa [saha\*] yaras, Kala Sang; some undefinable association, sahayas or sahayaras, Mārguz; the Travaśakura sahayaras, Peshāwar, no. 20; the Dronivadra saharas, i. e. probably sahayaras, Shakardarra). To the latter class we must probably reckon the Fatehjang inscription with its mention of a donation of the Vadhitira sahayas.

Of a similar kind is the dedication of tanks (pushkarini) mentioned in the inscriptions from l'āthyār, Karnāl, and Kāldarra.

It is less clear what is meant with the 'water-giver', toyamda, mentioned in the Dewai and Zeda inscriptions, in the latter one in connexion with a well (kue). We should perhaps think of some appliance for drawing water from the well or some vessel for drinking. In the Tor Dherai records a prapa is spoken of as the pious gift (deyadharma). These inscriptions were written in ink on pots or vessels, of which now only fragments remain. Prapa corresponds to Skr. prapā, which is usually rendered as 'drinking saloon', 'a shed on the roadside containing a reservoir of water for travellers'. In the Tor Dherai inscriptions such a place would be exceptionally appropriate, because the Loralai district is an extremely arid land.

In one inscription, from Kanhiāra, there is the question of an ārāma or grove; the object of donation in the Takht-i-Bāhī record is a parivāra, i. e. probably an enclosure, and in the Sui Vihār inscription we hear about the raising of a staff (yathi), the foundations of the staff, and an enclosure, while the Jāmālgarhī inscription of the year 359 speaks of some sort of religious building (dhamaüte oke).

Some religious building is apparently also meant in the Panjtār inscription, which speaks of a *sivathala*, and the dedication of a stūpa is mentioned in the Patika plate and other Taxila inscriptions (Sihila, Meridarkh), and in the Lion Capital inscriptions, together with a Samghārāma and adjoining ground.

Several utensils are the objects of donations: lamps (Jāmālgaṛhī), ladles (Bedadi, Taxila), jars (Pālāṭū Pherī, Sahr-i-Bahlol, Takht-i-Bāhī), silver vases, plates, and dishes (Taxila), volute brackets (Taxila), &c., and we occasionally get information about the value of such gifts, reckoned in staters and drachmes (Taxila).

Images and sculptures are often dedicated, especially in later records: Kumrahār, Peshāwar, nos. 21, 347, 1938, Lahore, no. 255, Jāmālgarhī, Yākubi, Hashtnagar, Shahr-i-Nāpursān, Ghaz Pherī, Pālāṭū Pherī, Takht-i-Bāhī, Loriyān Tangai, Nowshera, Skārah Pherī, Jauliā, Mamāne Pherī.

Buddhist relics are frequently mentioned: Swāt vase, Patika plate, Taxila gold plate and silver scroll, Lion Capital, Māṇikiāla, Box lid, Peshāwar, no. 4, Bīmarān, Kanishka casket, Kurram, Hidda, Wardak, and perhaps Uṇḍ. Also the footprints mentioned in the Tīrath inscription may be classed with relics.

We often also hear about the aim which the donor had in mind.

Aim of donations.

Of a general kind is the initial sidhi of the Karnāl inscription. More definite is the statement that the donation is made for the purpose of  $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ . This  $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$  may be

directed towards all the Buddhas (Patika, Lion Capital, Bīmarān, Sihila vase, Silver scroll), the Pratyekabuddhas and Arhats (Silver scroll), the Dharma and Samgha (Lion Capital), or towards venerable persons: the parents (Patika, Taxila silver scroll, Meridarkh plate, volute bracket, Takht-i-Bāhī, Pājā, Ārā, Wardak), a brother (Patika, Wardak), relatives and friends (Patika, Silver scroll), a teacher (Mamāne Dherī), some dignitary (the mahākshatrapa Kusulua Patika, the kshatrapa Mevaki Miyika, &c., Lion Capital; the erjhuṇa Kapa, Takht-i-Bāhī; the kshatrapa Liaka, Zeda). More general is the pūjā of the home country (sarvasa Sakrastanasa puyae, Lion Cap.), or of all beings (Taxila scroll, Kāldarra, Kurram, Jāmālgarhī, Wardak).

The donor's purpose is sometimes stated to be to ensure increase of life and strength: kshatrapasa saputradarasa ayubalavardhie (Patika), sarvastivadativardhase, vardhase Samghamitrarajasa (Zeda); or health: atvaņo arogadakshiņae (Silver scroll), atvaņasa ñatimitrasalohidaņa arogadakshiņae (Dharmarājikā), matapitu. aghadakshonayae (Taxila Meridarkh plate), maharajasa rajatirajasa devaputrasa Khushaņasa arogadakshiņae (Silver scroll), sāmiasa arogadakshiņi. (Jāmālgarhī), . . . lae arogadakshiņae (Naugram), Budhorumasa aroga... (Shahr-i-Nāpursān), samanuyayaņa arogadakshinae (Mamāne Dherī); or luck and happiness: Mitravadhanaputrahitae (Shahdaur), sarvasapaņa jatish[u hi]tae (Ārā), sarvasatvaņa hidasuhae (Pājā), sarvasatvanam hidasuhartham (Kanishka casket), sarvatvanam hitasukhaya (Sui Vihār), cf. bahujaņastitiye (Swāt vase); dirghayu... (Tor Dherai).

More general terms are also used, thus atmanasa sabharyasa saputrasa anugraharthae (Ārā), upakachaa madu (Zeda).

On the other hand, the aim can be of a special nature, e.g. to ensure protection to children (Skārah Pherī), perhaps one's own children in special dangerous circumstances.

A more religious colouring has the wish for the chief lot or sharing in the chief lot: maharaja rajatiraja Hoveshkasra agrabhagrae bhavatu (Wardak), mithyagasra cha agrabhaga bhavatu (ibidem), rajasa agraprachamsae (Hidda), bhratara Svarabudhisa agrapadiasae (Māṇikiāla), mahiya agrabhagrapadriyamsae, sarvina avashadrigana agrabhagrapadriyamsae (Wardak), agre matapitrinam pratiyamso sarvasatvanam agre pratiyamso (Tor Dherai).

In the Taxila gold plate we hear of a sacred relic deposited in a crystal hamsa, a symbol of the souls of the donor's parents, in order to ensure Buddhahood for them, and in a similar way the aim is sometimes stated to be to lead on towards Nirvāṇa (nivaṇae hodu aya de samaparichago, Taxila silver scroll; sarvasatvanam nirvanasambharae, Hidda).

There cannot be any doubt that we have throughout to do with Buddhist donors, Buddhism. and in several cases (Lion Capital, Takht-i-Bāhī potsherds, Taxila and Bedadi ladles, Pālāṭū Pherī jars, Sahr-i-Bahlol potsherds, Tor Pherai) the gift is offered to the Buddhist Order of the four quarters.

Nor can it be doubted that it is the Hīnayāna which is represented. The wish for Nirvāṇa does not, of course, prove that. But the names of the Buddhist schools mentioned in the inscriptions do not leave any doubt. The Sarvāstivādins are mentioned on the Lion Capital, the Kanishka casket of Peshāwar, at Zeda, Kurram, and Tor Pherai, and the Kāśyapīyas in records from the *Uttarārāma* in Taxila, from the *Urasarājya* (Bedadi), and from Pālāṭū Pherī. The Mahāsāmghikas had a settlement in Wardak, and they are also mentioned on the Lion Capital, but not as being in possession of the Vihāra.

About the state of things in the Buddhist monasteries we do not get much information. We learn about the existence of a mahādānapati (Patika), and he is evidently

also called horamurta (Māṇikiāla), clearly a Saka translation of dānapati. On the Lion Capital a horakaparivara, i. e. probably a 'hall' or 'chapter' of alms-lords is mentioned. A navakarmika, or superintendent of works and repairs, is repeatedly mentioned (Patika, Kanishka casket, Māṇikiāla, Hidda), and we sometimes (Patika, Māṇikiāla) get the impression that he himself took care to have his name entered in the record.

The Kurram inscription points to the existence of canonical writings in the north-western Prākrit of the Kharoshṭhī inscriptions, and it is possible that similar indications may be found in the Wardak record.

The Mamane Dheri inscription enables us to date a Gandhara sculpture in the 89th year of the Kanishka era, and the palaeography of inscriptions on other sculptures shows that they broadly belong to the same period. This fact is of importance for the history of Gandhara art.

Charms.

It is of interest to note that the aim is sometimes indicated in a sentence which does not fit into the ordinary context, or even in a stanza or in a rhythmic sentence. In the Taxila silver scroll the donor is in the last sentence spoken of in the second person, i. e. the sentence contains a separate blessing by a different person; in the Ārā inscription some special results seem to be hoped for in consequence of the writing down of the record; in Peshāwar, no. 21, the final blessing has been added in Sanskrit; in the Skārah Dherī inscription the blessing is clearly metrical, and in the Taxila gold plate it is distinctly rhythmical, with rhymes.

It is perhaps possible to draw the inference from such indications that the inscriptions were more or less considered as a kind of charm. And it is hardly possible to explain the Rāwal inscription unless we assume that such was the case. That record is a clumsy copy of the Shakardarra epigraph, executed by a person who did not understand the original. His only reason for copying what he could not read was evidently his belief in the magic efficacy of the letters he tried to imitate in order to achieve some desired object.

Such charms can be conceived to act in different ways. In the case of the Tīrath inscription it is perhaps to be assumed that the footprints became footprints of the Buddha in consequence of the magic spell contained in the letters. Usually, however, the inscriptions are intended to secure blessing for the donor from the higher powers.

Such records are not, therefore, historical documents or proclamations in the ordinary sense. To quote M. Barth, they are 'pious works which indeed admit of a certain amount of publicity, but a publicity intended especially for the next world'.

It thus becomes intelligible that the inscriptions are sometimes dug down in stūpas or placed in such a way that it is evident that they were never meant to be seen by mortal eyes. And we understand the care which was taken in order to have the names of the donors written and to include many of their friends and relatives, and also why the navakarmika seems to have added his name subsequently in the Patika and Māṇikiāla records. This was, as says M. Barth, something more than a gratification of vanity, and a mystic efficacy was attributed to the recording of such names.

Such considerations must be kept in mind when we want to judge of the nature of the Kharoshṭhī inscriptions. And that is also the case when a date is added. It is not intended for historical purposes, but to assure the particular pious act recorded against being neglected by the eternal forces that regulate the mystic results: it is particularly this very deed, executed at such and such a moment, which should lead to bliss, and the date is then just as good a way of identifying as the mention of a name or of other circumstances.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Comptes rendus, 1907, p. 387; Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, p. 246; Œuvres, v, p. 282.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Fournal des Savants, 1906, p. 548; Ind. Ant., xxxvi, 1907, p. 121; Œuvres, v, p. 267.

#### VARYING SHAPES OF THE LETTERS

THE period covered by the inscriptions published in this volume extends over five or six centuries, and the area within which they have been found is large. We should therefore expect to find both local and chronological differences in the shape of individual letters. Already in the inscriptions of Aśoka there is a considerable variety, bearing witness to a rather prolonged use of the alphabet.

We know from somewhat later sources that Kharoshṭhī was not only used in monumental records, but also in manuscripts and in official or semi-official correspondence.¹ We may accordingly reckon with the possibility of finding cursive and monumental forms side by side. And, as a matter of fact, cursive forms are already met with in old inscriptions, such as those on the Mathurā Lion Capital, and, on the other hand, monumental forms, of an earlier type, are sometimes to be found in late records, such as the Jauliã inscriptions.

It is hardly possible to state the existence of local varieties, the differences found within the same locality and sometimes in the same record, e.g. in Kāngrā and Taxila, in Wardak and Tor Dherai, being more marked than where we have to do with different parts of the Kharoshthī area.

With regard to the gradual development of individual letters it is not always easy to arrive at certainty. Several aksharas, such as a, i, ga, gha, ksha, pa, pha, ma, ra, va, show little or no difference in the various records, and there are only some few where we seem to be able to trace a certain chronological evolution.

We are not here concerned with the origin and earliest history of the Kharoshṭhī alphabet, all our records being posterior to the Aśoka inscriptions, where the alphabet is already fully developed. We must be content to draw attention to some features which seem to be of a later date.

In the Asoka inscriptions a small stroke is frequently added at the foot of many letters. We find similar bottom-strokes, in varying forms, in the Pāṭḥyār and Kanhiāra inscriptions and perhaps in the śra of Kāldarra, a short sloping stroke below the ma of the Bajaur seal, and a bend of the vertical of some letters in Bīmarān, but in other old inscriptions they are absent. The dot at the termination of several letters in the Taxila gold plate and some Taxila seals cannot be compared, because it is also found at the top. In later inscriptions, however, especially in such as have a cursive appearance, we find these strokes again, and we have no right to assume that they have ever gone quite out of use. In the Taxila ladle, silver cups, and silver sieve inscriptions we have something approaching an angle, similar to the bottom-stroke in Kanhiāra, and in Māṇikiāla we partly have a right angle, partly a protruding, sloping line (na, l. 2), partly a straight bottom-stroke (sa, l. 12). In other late inscriptions, the Kanishka casket, Sui Vihār, Zeda, Kurram, Wardak, Mamāne Dherī, Tor Dherai, we have a forward bend as in Bīmarān, and it is possible that the apparent anusvāras in some aksharas in Sui Vihār, Māṇikiāla, and Wardak are in reality such misdrawn bends.

With regard to initial vowels only u, e, and o call for any remark. In the Swāt vase and apparently in I 4 on the Lion Capital u has the old shape, where the u-mātrā consists of a short line sloping forwards from the bottom. In I 1 of the Lion Capital a loop has been added to the right of this stroke. Elsewhere we find a loop or, in the Bajaur seal, a triangle attached to the left of the bottom.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. the Kharoshṭhī Dhammapada, the birch-bark fragments found in Afghanistan and mentioned in the *Ariana Antiqua*, and the documents recovered by Sir Aurel Stein in Chinese Turkestan.

With e there is much greater variety. In the oldest records the e-mātrā is added near the head, and similar forms are found at all times. Already in the Taxila scroll, however, we also find the e-stroke at the bottom, and in Ārā, Wardak, and other late records this has become the rule. In two instances in the Wardak vase the letter is still more cursive, being devoid of the usual head-curve. In Bīmarān the e-mātrā is slightly rounded downwards, and in some of the e's of the Māṇikiāla stone and the last one in Mamāne Dherī it has become a rounded downward angle, the result being an akshara resembling the compound spa.

O is fairly constant. Only in Mount Banj and Kala Sang we find slightly different forms, the bottom of the vertical having a gentle backwards bend in the former and a sharper one in the latter record, where the o-stroke is almost continuous with the upper part of the vertical.

No difference is usually made between long or short vowels, initial or post-consonantic. Only in the  $r\bar{a}$  of Pāṭhyār, the  $k\bar{a}$  of Shakardarra, and the  $s\bar{a}$  of the Jamālgaṛhī pedestal it is possible that length has been marked.

Post-consonantic *i* is usually indicated by means of a line crossing the head, generally on the left side of the letter. In the case of *na* and *ha*, however, the *i*-stroke crosses the upright. With *ta*, *na*, and *da* both devices are found. The *ti* of Dharmarājikā has the stroke through the head, that of Sui Vihār, if my reading is right, through the vertical. With *na* the *i*-mātrā crosses the head-curve or angle in the oldest records: Pāṭhyār, Swāt vase, Tīrath, Patika plate; the vertical in Bīmarān and Shakardarra, and is placed just at the edge of the head in Kāldarra, Sui Vihār, Zeda, Peshāwar, no. 7, and the Jamālgarhī pedestal. Also in *di* we find the *i*-stroke at the edge of the head in Sui Vihār. Elsewhere it crosses the upper hook or curve or, where the letter has a more or less regular s-shape, the middle. In the case of *li* we occasionally, in Zeda and Kurram, find the *i*-stroke at the edge of the head instead of across the limb, and in Ārā and Naugrām it is placed just to the left of the head.

The old shape of the u-mātrā is still found in Pāṭhyār (pu, yu), Karnāl (pu), and the Swāt vase (hu), occasionally also later, on the Lion Capital (nu), apparently in the shu of Ārā, Yākubi, and Skārah Pherī, and perhaps in the hu of Wardak. In mu there is a great variety of shapes, which will be mentioned in connexion with ma. The common u-mātrā, however, is a loop or, occasionally, a triangle, with some late varieties.

The e-stroke usually rises from the head, on the left side in case of aksharas such as tha and ye. The the of the Bajaur seal is, in this respect, irregular. In ne and he the e-stroke protrudes from the upright, and in the ne of pujane on the Takht-i-Bāhī stone it is a curved downwards angle, like some of the e's of Māṇikiāla and Mamāne Dherī. In de we find a characteristic shape in several inscriptions, beginning with the Bīmarān vase, viz. in Sui Vihār, Zeda, Kurram, Ārā, Tor Dherai, Peshāwar, nos. 5 and 21, Skārah Dherī, where the e-mātrā is added at the bottom, while the akshara itself is reduced to an upright, bent to the right at the top. In the Peshāwar inscription of the year 168 this de has a forward slope and is devoid of the upper bend.

In the case of o the rule is to let the stroke protrude from the upright. The apparent ksho in the Taxila Meridarkh plate, with an o-stroke running down from the upper curve, is probably a mutilated kshi. Occasionally, however, the o-stroke has a different position. Thus it runs down from the head of kho in Fatehjang and Mount Banj, and usually from the upper curve of ta; from the horizontal of pa in Karnāl, Fatehjang, Shakardarra, and Loriyān Tangai. It protrudes from the foot of da in the Swāt vase; from the left leg of pa and backwards in the Taxila gold plate, in Shahdaur, and partly in Tor Dherai, where we, however, also find instances where it is attached to

the right leg. Where ya has a more or less horizontal head, as in Wardak, the o-stroke runs down from this horizontal. With ra the mātrā is attached to the horizontal in the oldest records: Patika plate and Lion Capital, and also in Mamāne Dherī; to the point of jointure with the vertical in the silver scroll, and to the vertical in Dharmarājikā, Sui Vihār, Zeda, Wardak, and other late records. In sto the stroke runs down from the horizontal.

With regard to vowels we may still note the double dot above the na of Hashthuna on the Wardak Vase.

Among consonants some few may be considered as test letters.

Ka has a square shape, with distinct angles, in all old records, and frequently also in later inscriptions. A tendency to round the upper horizontal can be traced in the Peshāwar inscription of the year 168 and becomes fully established in the Kanishka casket, Sui Vihār, Kurram, and Yākubi. The side limb shows a similar development. It becomes more or less rounded and sloping in some of the kas of the Lion Capital, in Kala Sang and Takht-i-Bāhī, the inscriptions just mentioned, and late records such as Shakardarra and Wardak. In Kala Sang it is raised up to the top stroke, and similar cursive forms, where the top stroke and the limb form one continuous curve, are found in the Peshāwar inscription of the year 168, the Kanishka casket, Shakardarra, Wardak, and Nowshera.

In the Kurram casket and the inscription on the Buddha's writing-board, Lahore Museum, no. 206, we have a ka with the vertical protruding above the head, in words where Skr. has sk, evidently marking a modified, probably slightly aspirated, ka.

Kha retains the old shape, without any bend of the head, in the oldest records: the Swāt and Taxila Meridarkh inscriptions, the Lion Capital (where the head is angular), Kala Sang, Mount Banj, Takht-i-Bāhī, Taxila ladle and Sihila vase, and occasionally in late records. On the Mathurā elephant the head is angular and the top bent back into a long horizontal. In Fatehjang and the Patika plate the head curve is rounded downwards at the top, and this broad head curve is found in the Taxila silver scroll and silver vase, in Dharmarājikā, Shahr-i-Nāpursān, the Māṇikiāla bronze and Wardak, while the bottom of the head is angular in the Peshāwar Museum inscriptions no. 20 (of sam 168) and 21, and Dewai. In late inscriptions, such as Jauliā, the Pālāṭū Dherī and Jamālgaṭhī pedestals and once in Zeda, the head is quite angular, the upper stroke being a vertical bent downwards in a sharp angle at the top.

The akshara which corresponds to Skr. ksha has the same shape throughout, if we except two Loriyān Tangai inscriptions where the vertical almost touches the right termination of the head curve.

In the oldest records, in Maira, Mānsehrā, the Patika plate and Pājā, the lower limb of cha is curved down below the jointure with the vertical which connects it with the head: an obtuse angle in Maira, a curve in the other records. Already in Shahdaur the downward continuation is almost absent, and in the Sihila vase we almost have the later cursive shape, where the connecting vertical is immediately continued in the lower limb; cf. the Kanishka and Kurram caskets. In the scroll the connecting vertical also runs into the right end of the head, and this shape is common in later records: Sui Vihār, Mānikiāla, Ārā, Wardak, &c. In the Peshāwar inscription of the year 168, the head has become flattened, and once in Mānikiāla and once in Wardak it is a straight line. This same form also seems to occur in Yākubi, while Skārah Dherī has a still more cursive form, where the damaged head is connected with the lower limb by means of a large loop.

Chha is only found in Mansehra and the Lion Capital. The lower cross-bar has become a downwards curve, which on the Lion Capital touches the angle of the head.

Ja usually has an angular head. A tendency to round it is noticeable in Shahdaur,

in Bīmarān, where we once, on the cover, find the limb connected with the vertical by means of a narrow loop, in the Taxila scroll, and, fully developed, in Wardak and Yākubi. The vertical is once bent backwards, from the point of jointure with the limb, in Ārā, and likewise in Jauliā and Yākubi.

The oldest instance of jha is in Takht-i-Bāhī, where the lower horizontal of the limb protrudes to the left of the point of jointure with the short upright. In the Sirkap silver sieve and seals, in Māṇikiāla and Ārā (where the connecting horizontal cannot be seen), the limb has still an outwards curve, while in Zeda it has become a right angle.

Na has always the vertical to the left; in the Jamālgarhī inscription of the year 359, the vertical has a backwards curve at the top.

Ta is only found in two inscriptions, in Dharmarājikā, where the left bar is placed as the limb of ja and the right at the bottom, and in Sui Vihār, where the top is damaged and the right bar seems to be missing. The cross-shaped ta given in Bühler's plate is a tha.

The lower horizontal of *tha* is always without the vertical which rises from its termination in the Aśoka inscriptions. It is long and sloping in the Swāt vase and in Mānsehrā, but elsewhere of the same length as the top-line. The head is rounded in Mount Banj, Takht-i-Bāhī, Dewai, Kurram, and Ārā.

The cerebral nasal na has two different forms, which occur side by side during the whole period: one with a rounded, the other with an angular head. The former can be traced from Pāṭhyār and Tīrath down to Wardak, the latter from Karnāl and the Swāt and Taxila Meridarkh inscriptions down to Wardak and Jauliā. Sometimes the head is almost rectangular; cf. Fatehjang, Kala Sang, sometimes in Māṇikiāla, &c.

In ta the leg has a forward slope and about the same length as the horizontal or curve in old records: Pāṭhyār, Swāt vase, Maira, Shahdaur, Mānsehrā, Patika, Muchai, Pājā, Kāldarra, Taxila scroll and other Taxila inscriptions, &c. Occasionally, as in Kāldarra and the Kanishka casket, the head is curved backwards. Already in the Meridarkh plate we can trace a tendency to lengthen the leg and do away with the forward slope, the result being a letter resembling ra. On the whole, however, the two signs are easily distinguished.

The oldest da shows a shallow upper curve, opening to the right, and, partly, a forwards slope of the leg; cf. the Swat and Taxila Meridarkh inscriptions, &c. The jointure between curve and leg is more or less angular, and the bottom of the leg bent forwards, in the Patika plate, Bīmarān, Takht-i-Bāhī, Pājā, while this bend is missing in Mount Banj, Taxila gold plate, Zeda (di), Māņikiāla, &c. Frequently all edges are rounded; thus already in Tīrath, the Meridarkh inscriptions, Fatehjang and Mānsehrā, and the result is a more or less sloping s-shape, which we find in numerous records, from the Taxila scroll and onwards. This s-shape is flattened in Kaldarra, and in the Peshawar inscription of the year 168 we find a vertical bent backwards at the top and forwards at the bottom, which we can also trace elsewhere, especially in connexion with an i- or e-mātra. Thus in the di of Takht-i-Bāhī, Pājā, Sui Vihār, Māņikiāla, Skārah Dherī; in the du of Takht-i-Bāhī and Kurram, and in the de, with the e-stroke at the bottom and usually no forward bend of the vertical, in Bīmarān, Sui Vihār, Zeda, Kurram, Peshāwar Museum, no. 21, Ārā and Skārah Pherī. In the Peshāwar Museum inscription of the year 168 this de seems to be mutilated, having a forwards slope and being devoid of the upper bend of the upright.

In the oldest records, such as Tīrath, Shahdaur, Patika plate, and other Taxila inscriptions, dha has an angular shape, and the lower limb protrudes to the right. A more cursive, rounded shape is found in the Lion Capital, Bīmarān, Ārā, &c.

Na is comparatively rare. The upper curve is shallow in the Swāt vase, Shahdaur, and, sometimes, the Lion Capital, but deeper in Maira, the Patika plate and other Taxila records, Pājā, &c.

Pha only occurs in Zeda, Kurram, where it is once replaced by pa, and the Jamālgarhī halo, and vha only in Takht-i-Bāhī, the Taxila scroll, Māṇikiāla, Ārā, and perhaps Peshāwar Museum, no. 4, and Nowshera.

The oldest ba, in Tīrath and the Swāt vase, is not much different from ra, only showing a forward slope of the vertical. This form is traceable in records such as the Lion Capital, the Taxila and Bīmarān vases, &c. In the Patika plate, Takht-i-Bāhī and the Taxila scroll, there is a deep indenture in the curved head, which becomes a narrow angle in Sui Vihār and some Loriyān Tangai records. The ba of the Wardak vase is evidently misdrawn.

Bha has a distinct top-stroke protruding on both sides of the vertical in most inscriptions where it occurs, from the Swāt vase to the Kurram casket. In Bīmarān, Sui Vihār, and sometimes in Wardak we find a cursive bha where the right termination of the top-stroke is continuous with the vertical. Here the letter becomes similar to ka, which, however, in these records has a rounded head.

Ma has almost the same shape throughout, if we abstract from minor details such as the lengthening of the right bar above the line in Mānsehrā, Mount Banj, and Khalatse, the inwards bend of both bars in the Bajaur seal and Hashtnagar, and the short stroke below in the Paris cornelian. It is only in connexion with the u-mātrā that we find considerable variety. The oldest shape is represented by the mu of the Swāt, Tīrath, and Patika inscriptions, and is formed by raising the right bar and adding the u-bar at the left extremity. In so doing the ma-curve has become a sharp angle in Swāt, and the akshara slopes backwards in Tīrath, where the left bar has, besides, become considerably shortened. This shape is evidently cursive, and is found in several records. It may be described as a raised upright, sometimes sloping backwards, rounded forwards and then downwards at the bottom. We find this shape, in addition to the older one, on the Lion Capital, and further in Bīmarān, Fatehjang, Peshāwar Museum of the year 168, Taxila ladle and silver plate, and, with a backwards opening of the bottom-curve, in Zeda, Mānikiāla, Wardak, and several pedestal inscriptions.

In Mount Banj, Dewai, Yākubi, and apparently Ghaz Dherī we have a ma with the right bar above the line and the u-stroke added below the termination of the left bar. This mu differs from mo only in the raising of the right bar. It is apparently this shape which is at the base of the square mu in Kurram, where the left bar is vertical and bent forwards at the top and the u-mātrā is a downwards continuation of the vertical. Similar forms are also found in Dharmarājikā, where the akshara seems to be turned round, and in Jauliā, where the downwards continuation is missing, and where we also find other peculiar forms. Also in Loriyān Tangai the shape of mu is very different, as will be seen from the plates.

Ya has a distinctly angular form in the oldest inscriptions, a broad angle in Pāṭhyār, Mānsehrā, Shahdaur, Patika, Kāldarra, Muchai, Mount Banj, Takht-i-Bāhī, Pājā, Mārguz, Taxila scroll and other Taxila inscriptions, a narrow one in Karnāl, Fatehjang, and later records, such as Sui Vihār and Zeda. In the Lion Capital, Kala Sang, and partly in Takht-i-Bāhī the head is slightly rounded, and in Kanhiāra we have two almost parallel uprights connected by a top-bar. In Bīmarān, and later in Mānikiāla, the left bar consists of a line forming an upper angle with the right bar and bent or curved downwards about the middle. Similar forms are also met with in other, undated records. In the Peshāwar inscription of the year 168 this shape has developed to an akshara

resembling  $\delta a$ , and more or less  $\delta a$ -like forms are met with in the Kanishka casket, Kurram, and Wardak, and, with the left upright rising above the head, in Ārā and Loriyān Tangai.

Ra is fairly constant. In Kāldarra the top-stroke is slightly rounded backwards, and in Loriyān Tangai it is sometimes continued below the horizontal.

In la the limb is usually rounded, and in a cursive shape, which already begins to appear on the Lion Capital, it is raised up to the top of the vertical.

Va retains its angular head in most inscriptions and is only rounded in such records as Kurram, Ārā, Wardak, Loriyān Tangai.

The old rectangular sa is used throughout, occasionally with a shortening of the left leg (painchadase Pājā, sri Lion Capital, sru Mānsehrā, se Taxila ladle, sve Kurram). Already in the Lion Capital we also find a cursive form, with rounded angles, and by narrowing the head the result is sometimes, in the Takht-i-Bāhī pot-sherds and some of the sas of the Wardak vase, a letter resembling ya.

With sha we may note the rounding of the head-curve towards the vertical in Kurram, Yākubi, and the Pālāṭū Dherī jars and the occasional break in the middle of the head curve in Māṇikiāla and perhaps also in Shahdaur. In Kanhiāra there is a dot and in Kurram a curve about the head, where Skr. has sha. As the Kharoshṭhī Dhammapada has sha in such cases, and as the curve seems to be used elsewhere as a sign of aspiration, I assume that an aspirated sha is meant.

The oldest form of sa, with a closed head, is found in the Pāṭhyār, Tīrath and Swāt inscriptions, in the first with a rounded, in the others with an angular, head. In Kanhiāra, Shahdaur, Fatehjang, Mānsehrā, Patika plate, Lion Capital, Muchai, partly in Takht-i-Bāhī, in Pājā, Mārguz, Taxila scroll and other old Taxila inscriptions, &c., we find an intermediate shape, where the leg is prolonged in a straight or bent line, without however reaching the head, and this form is occasionally also met with in late inscriptions, e.g. in Jauliã.

Already in the Lion Capital a more cursive form, without the prolongation, begins to be used and it gradually becomes the common one. There are several varying shapes of this sa, down to quite cursive forms, where head and leg is only one wavy line, which is sometimes met with in Wardak, Tor Dherai, the undated Peshāwar inscription, no. 1, &c.

Ha has an angular base in several inscriptions, beginning with the Patika plate and extending down to late records such as the Jamālgaṛhī inscriptions, side by side with a rounded ha, which is first met with in the Swāt vase, and later on, partly together with the angular ha, in several inscriptions, down to Wardak and other late records. No chronological or geographical distinction can be traced. In Shahdaur we seem to have one instance of the shape, known from the Aśoka edicts, with the upright bent back and down about the middle. In Ārā the bottom-stroke twice appears to be missing.

The anusvāra is frequently omitted. Where it is marked, it consists of a curve running backwards from the bottom of the vertical and opening to the left. Sometimes, as in Mount Banj, the Peshāwar inscription of the year 168, Khalatse, the Jamālgarhi inscription of the year 359, and some uncertain cases, the curve immediately continues the vertical. In the yam of the Sihila vase it is apparently replaced by a short sloping stroke.

Compound consonants are comparatively numerous, as is to be expected in a dialect like the old north-western Prākrit. The increasing influence of Sanskrit in the Kanishka period even leads to an increase in the number of such compounds.

Ya usually seems to coalesce with a preceding consonant, if we abstract from the compound rya, where it regularly remains. Three instances of the writing of a post-consonantic ya are known from the Asoka inscriptions, viz. in *ibhyeshu* v. 23 and samya ix. 4, xi. 12 of the Mansehra version. Here the subscript sign seems to be a flattened ya.

It is possible that this same device is used in the Māṇikiāla bronze, where a ya seems to be attached to the vertical of vha. In all other cases the subscript ya is a loop attached to the bottom. Thus in thya in Wardak, apparently in dhya in Tor Pherai, in pya and lya in Wardak, in shya in Sui Vihār and in sya in Sui Vihār, Wardak and apparently also in some Taxila inscriptions and in Tor Pherai. In Sui Vihār we even find this ya-loop attached to the bottom of an a. We get the impression that this device is a later development.

A subscript ra is indicated by a curved or straight backwards stroke attached to the foot. In Shakardarra it occasionally also protrudes in front of the vertical. In some cases, viz. in the kra of the Lion Capital, the gra of Bīmarān, Kurram, and Wardak, the dra of Kurram and Wardak, the dra and dra of the Lion Capital, the dra of the Swāt vase, the mri of Wardak, the dra and dra of the Lion Capital, and the dra of the Lion Capital, some Taxila records, Wardak, Tor Dherai, &c., the dra of the Lion Capital and the dra of the Lion Capital sketch. In such cases its shape sometimes differs from the usual dra-stroke, being added in an angle, while the ordinary dra-stroke has a rounded joint. The various shapes of dra in the Lion Capital and Zeda have been noted in the edition of those records.

Ante-consonantic r is marked by means of a downwards curve in all old records: the Swāt vase, Shahdaur, Patika plate, Lion Capital, Bīmarān, Pājā, Takht-i-Bāhī, and Kāldarra. From the Taxila silver scroll onwards, it becomes a loop attached to the bottom, the first examples being the rva of the scroll and the rya of Bedadi. In rma the old shape, with the curve above or crossing the right bar, which is usually raised, is found in the Kanishka casket, Sui Vihār (where the letter is misdrawn), Kurram, and Jauliã, while the later loop is attached to the i-stroke of rmi in Māṇikiāla. In Mamāne Dherī ante-consonantic r is a double curve, resembling the symbol for 20, added in front of the other consonant.

A va enters as the second part of a consonantal compound in tva in Pājā, Taxila scroll, Dharmarājikā, Kanishka casket, Sui Vihār, Kurram, Wardak, &c., in śva in Kurram, and sva in Sui Vihār, Māṇikiāla, &c. It is everywhere denoted by a narrow rounding of the vertical backwards, continued in an upwards slope. Tva has formerly sometimes been rendered as tma, but the certain tma in Ārā is a regular ta above a ma.

Some few stops are used in compounds with other letters, especially with s-sounds. Thus we find khsa, with both letters easily recognizable, in the Patika plate and the Sirkap vase, and tsa in slightly varying shapes in the Patika plate, Mount Banj, Takht-i-Bāhī, Pājā, Sui Vihār (where it looks like chsa), and Ārā, perhaps also in a mutilated akshara in Shahdaur and on the Peshāwar writing-board. An s-sound is the first component in several compounds. Thus we have spa in Mānschrā, the Lion Capital, the Taxila ladle, and Māṇikiāla always in a shape resembling a ka, with a downwards bend of the top-stroke. We further find some sha-compounds. In Shahdaur we perhaps have shta, in Wardak apparently shtha. The most frequent sha-compound is shka. The vertical of sha is broken and continued in a ka in the Kanishka casket, Sui Vihār, once in Ārā, and in Wardak. In Zeda and the first shka of the Ārā inscription the kalimb is simply attached to the vertical, wherefore the compound has sometimes been considered to be a shpa.

Finally we find sta: an akshara resembling tha, but with a forwards bend of the top,

in the Lion Capital, the Mathurā elephant, the Taxila silver scroll, the Kanishka casket, perhaps in Zeda, in Māṇikiāla, Kurram, the Peshāwar inscription no. 21, and Wardak. In the Swāt vase the shape is irregular, as mentioned in the edition of the record. In Tor Dherai and perhaps in Hidda, an upright rises from the right end of the cross-bar, as often in the Niya documents, where it is, in such cases, customary to transliterate stha.

In the pta of the Peshāwar inscription no. 21 and perhaps in the khta of Nowshera we have compounds consisting of two stops, a late development due to the increasing influence of Sanskrit. The curious compound which I have tentatively rendered as vtha in Khalatse is not clear to me.

In addition to the aksharas some few other signs are occasionally used. Some of them, such as the svastika in Pāṭhyār, Kanhiāra, and the Peshāwar inscription of the year 168, the diagram or nandipada on the silver scroll and some Taxila seals, the Buddha footprints in Tīrath, the Mathurā elephant, the curious illustrations in Shakardarra, &c., can only be mentioned in passing. More closely connected with the alphabet are certain strokes and signs which are sometimes attached or added to the letters.

In Mount Banj there is a flourish above the left extremity of the initial ma, and in Sui Vihār and Ārā a dash across the right bar of ma, which I take to mark the beginning of the record. Similarly I take the flourish at the end of the Takht-i-Bāhī record to mark the termination.

Some signs of interpunction seem to occur. Thus the short dash after the figures of the year and the sloping line with a projection after the day figures in Fatehjang; the St. Andrew's cross after the figures in Muchai; the curious *cha*-like sign after the figures in Kala Sang, the hook after the figures in Pājā, the blurred sign after the figures in the Peshāwar inscription of the year 168, and perhaps the traces of a sign visible after the date in Hashtnagar.

In the Lion Capital and in Māṇikiāla we apparently find signs corresponding to the later Kākapada and indicating that something should be inserted. Thus there are some bars, on the right side of ksha in B 1; below the tra of B 2; before the ka and connected with the jo of B 2; at the left side of ksha and across the head of da in M 1 of the Capital; and one bar on each side of the tra of etra in l. 1 in Māṇikiāla, which I have considered as signs of omission.

Abbreviations are sometimes found in the dates. Thus we have a curious ka at the beginning of the Taxila silver vase, perhaps an abbreviation for kala; sam in Maira, Shahdaur, Fatchjang, Panjtār, Peshāwar, no. 20, Khalatse, &c., sa on the Taxila scroll and in Loriyān Tangai, and perhaps samva in Kala Sang, all standing for samvatsare. Similarly we find di for divase in Takht-i-Bāhī, Panjtār, Loriyān Tangai, Sui Vihār, Zeda, Kurram, Peshāwar, no. 21, Shakardarra, Ārā, and Kāniza Dherī. Other abbreviations are dra and dha for drakhme, sa or sya for stater in the Taxila silver plates, and perhaps li for livi on the Peshāwar writing-board.

The numeral symbols occurring in our inscriptions are: one to three vertical strokes for 1, 2, 3, respectively; a St. Andrews' cross for 4; a sign similar to the letter a for 10; a double curve which Bühler thought might be a cursive combination of two 10 for 20, and a symbol of varying shape for 100.

Other numbers are expressed by groups, which should be added, or, in the case of the hundreds, multiplied from right to left. Thus 6 = 114; 8 = 44; 9 = 144; 15 = 1410; 78 = 4410202020; 384 = 4202020100111.

When two or more verticals follow each other, they are usually of equal length, but in Fatehjang the last is longer and in Loriyān Tangai shorter than the rest.

## THE SIGN FOR 100

cxxvii

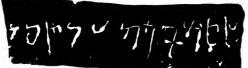
The figure 20 presents some variety in the shape, the fundamental form is, however, everywhere the same. The sign for 100 has different forms:

Mount Banj	Takht-i-Bāhī	Pājā	Kāldarra	Panjtār	Taxila scroll	, Peshāwar, 168	Khalatse	Dewai	Sirkap vase	Loriyān Tanga	Jamālgaṛhī	Hashtnagar



2. TAXILA MERIDARKH PLATE

# 71777779





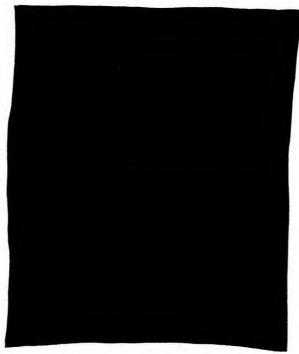
3. BAJAUR SEAL. SENART



4. PARIS CORNELIAN



5. TIRATH INSCRIPTION. BÜHLER



6. SADDO INSCRIPTION. CUNNINGHAM

1.77527.3 427227.3 12420

# A. INSCRIPTIONS OF GREEK CHIEFS AND UNCLASSED NORTH-WESTERN RECORDS

Only two Kharoshthi records have been found which have been executed by or by the order of Greek chiefs. We are unable to tell to what extent the Greek rulers made use of Kharoshthī. They employed it, in addition to Greek, in coin legends, and it is possible that they went on using Greek in administration and business. We cannot tell. The only thing we know is that some of them at least made use of Kharoshthī and the north-western Indian vernacular for the purpose of recording pious acts and donations connected with Buddhism.

We are in possession of two such epigraphs, which we shall now proceed to discuss.

# I. PLATE I. I: SWAT RELIC VASE INSCRIPTION OF THE MERIDARKII THEODOROS

No. I., 4 of the Lahore Museum is a Buddhist steatite relic vase, 5 in. high and 5 in. in inner diameter, which was discovered by Mr. C. G. M. Hastings in a Pathan village in the Swat Valley, where it was employed by the local banya as a money-box.

Round the upper part of the box runs a Kharoshthī inscription, plate 1, no. 1, which has been edited by Professor F. W. Thomas 1 from an inked tracing and two rubbings supplied by Professor J. Ph. Vogel.

The letters are well engraved, but the vase has been painted black, and some of the lines have become indistinct through the paint.

The characters are, as stated by Professor Thomas, archaic, and the general

ductus of the writing is stiff.

U has the same shape which we find in the Asoka inscriptions, with a forward bend of the lower part of the vertical instead of the usual loop. Kha is almost identical with the kha of the Asoka inscriptions and has not the backward bend, which we already find in the Patika plate. We may also note the shape of the pre-consonantic r, without the loop of later records. The central bar of th is longer than in the Patika plate, but devoid of the upward bend which we find in the Asoka edicts. Na has a pointed head, and the i-mātrā crosses the head as in the Aśoka, Patika, and Tīrath inscriptions. As in the lastlacktriangle mentioned record it perhaps denotes the dental n, but I shall write n for consistency's sake. Ta and da are very similar, but da is more curvilinear than ta. In the third akshara an o-stroke has been added at the bottom. Bha has about the same shape as in the Patika inscription. The head of sa is closed, and the akshara has the same shape as in some of the Asoka edicts. It seems to point to an earlier date than the Tīrath inscription. The u of hu is a line and not a loop, just as in the Asoka inscriptions.

<sup>1</sup> Festschrift Ernst Windisch, Leipzig, 1914, pp. 362 ff., with plate; cf. Vogel, Journal of the Panjab Historical Society, iii, no. 2, p. 151, and Majumdar, List, no. 65.

On the whole there can be no doubt that our inscription is one of the oldest, perhaps the oldest of all Kharoshthī inscriptions, with the exception of those of Aśoka, and it can hardly be later than the middle of the first century B.C.

With regard to reading and interpretation I agree with Professor Thomas in most details. I think, however, that he begins his reading in the wrong place. There is a longer interval than usual before the akshara the, and it seems certain that this interval marks the beginning of the record.

The first word is evidently *Theüdorena*, i.e. perhaps *Theüdorena*. The u has, as already mentioned, the old form with a bend of the vertical instead of the loop of later records. Professor Thomas says that the akshara may conceivably be o, but I do not know any instance where the o-mātrā is not a separate line added to the vertical of a. Mr. Majumdar maintains that we must read a, but he has evidently overlooked the distinct bend of the leg.

The name Theüdora is Greek. Professor Thomas says that Theudoros is no less Greek than Theodoros. So far as I can see, however, Theüdora is a correct writing of the usual  $\Theta\epsilon\delta\delta\omega\rho\sigma$ , the Greek  $\sigma$  having been rendered as u, just as the Indian u is written  $\sigma$  in Greek in words such as  $\kappa\sigma\xi\sigma\nu\lambda\sigma$ ,  $kuj\bar{u}la$ ,  $B\delta\delta\delta\sigma$ , Buddha, &c.

The next word is, as seen by Professor Thomas, evidently meridarkhena, i.e. perhaps meridarkhena. All the letters are absolutely certain. Nor can there be any doubt about Professor Thomas's explanation of the word meridarkha: it is the Greek title μεριδάρχης, which belongs to the Hellenistic and Roman period.

Professor Thomas says: 'The lexicons of Hesychius and Photius gloss it (or rather the form μεριδαρχίαs) as μεριτίαs. It is known to occur, along with the abstract μεριδαρχία, in Josephus (Ant. Ind. xii. 5. 5 and xv. 7. 3), where it is applied to Apollonius and Soemus; and in the first of Maccabees, x. 65, the same title is bestowed by Ptolemy Philometor upon Alexander Balas. μερίs in the sense of "arrondissement" is also found in various inscriptions belonging to the Seleucid age and sphere: see Dittenberger, Orientis Graeciae Inscriptiones Selectae (Leipzig, 1903–5), index. The compound μεριδάρχηs occurs also in the various papyri procured from Egypt. . . We may add that it does not seem certain that in Egypt μεριδάρχηs was part of the normal official terminology.'

'From the tenor of the present inscription it is clear that Theudoros was officially a μεριδάρχης, or "District Officer", and that his district included the site of the deposit which is commemorated. He was, therefore, most probably in charge of a part of the Kabul territory (the Paropamisadae), or of Arachosia or Gandhara. As regards his date, nothing precludes the supposition suggested by the age of the writing, that he belonged to the period of Greek rulers preceding the Parthians and even the early Sakas.... That a different person from the donor of the casket is indicated by "Thaïdora, son of Datia" (of the Kāldarra inscription) is abundantly evident from the forms of the aksharas which he employs and from the year (113) in which he dates.'

These statements are no doubt unobjectionable. We cannot, however, say whence the vase originates. It is just possible that it has been originally found in Swāt, which may, for anything we know, have been dependent on the Greek rulers in Taxila.

The next word is *pratithavidra*, with a comparatively large interval between *pra* and *ti*. The *r*-stroke under *da* is added in a sharp angle, and Professor Thomas refers us to Bühler, who mentions <sup>1</sup> two cases in the Asoka inscriptions where *di* shows 'a curve to the right of the foot, which is probably nothing but an attempt to clearly distinguish *da* from *na*'. Professor Thomas adopts this suggestion and reads *pratithavida*. It seems to me, however, that this bottom-line must be compared with the apparent *r*-mātrā, which occurs in con-

nexion with intervocalic t on the Lion Capital, with intervocalic k in the same epigraph, and with g in several inscriptions, &c. I have discussed such writings in the chapter about grammar and suggested that it is meant to indicate a fricative pronunciation. It seems to me that such is probably also the case here, and, if we bear in mind the change of intervocalic t to r in modern Khowar, we become inclined to think that our vase actually originates from the Swāt country, and that there was, in the local dialect, a tendency to fricative pronunciation. It cannot be objected that -t- is preserved elsewhere in the inscription, even in prati in the same word. The occasional writing padi for prati, which has been mentioned in the grammatical introduction, shows that here there was a tendency towards cerebralization, and words such as bhagravato, stitiye belong to the more formal part of the record, where traditional writing was bound to exercise a certain influence. The whole state of things seems to me to point to a voiced pronunciation of -t- with a tendency towards a fricative sound. I therefore read pratithavid(r)a, indicating the sound-modifying function of r through the parenthesis.

The next word is *ime*, which Dr. Thomas takes to be the neuter singular, corresponding to Māgadhī imaii, Skr. idam. The form can also be the masculine nominative plural, as in the Taxila silver scroll. The decision depends on the reading of the ensuing Dr. Thomas read *sarire*, stating that the c of rc is clearly visible on one of the His plate shows a faint c-stroke above ra, but a similar stroke is also seen in front of the letter. In my materials, an excellent photograph and three rubbings, there is no trace of it, and, I therefore read sarira. This can correspond to Skr. sarirāh, and then ime would be the plural form. It should be borne in mind that we find neuter plural forms in -a already in the Shāhbāzgarhī and Mānsehrā versions of the Aśoka edicts,1 while on the other hand the neuter forms in -āni are widely used in the masculine accusative plural.<sup>2</sup> Lüders has found <sup>3</sup> that the nominative plural of a-bases in Old Ardhamāgadhi ended in -a, the accusative in -āni and that this state of things is also found in Mānsehrā and Shāhbāzgarhī. The neuter forms in -a mentioned above bear witness to a beginning fusion of the masculine and neuter, which has resulted in the disappearance of the neuter gender in many of the modern Indo-Aryan vernaculars. As stated in the grammatical introduction, the only other neuter plural of a-bases which is found in Kharoshthī inscriptions is padaņi, in the Tīrath epigraph. In the Dhammapada manuscript we have several forms in -ani, but they are all accusatives, and the isolated padani does not prove that the regular nominative was formed in ani. I therefore read ime sarira and take this to be the common masculine-neuter form of the nominative plural.

Then follows sakamunisa (i.e. perhaps sakamunisa) bhagravato. The r-stroke of gra, which Professor Thomas does not transliterate, evidently indicates a fricative pronunciation of intervocalic g.

The last word of the inscription was read bahujatishtitiye by Professor Thomas. The fourth letter is, however, certainly na, i.e. perhaps na and not ti. Professor Thomas was misled by the fact that the vertical of na had been filled up through the painting of the vase. The fifth akshara is not an ordinary sti. The head consists of a curve and not of a straight line. The bottom of the vertical is bent backwards, and the i-stroke crosses the vertical, parallel to the top-stroke. It seems as if the engraver had originally misread his draft and read hi, but subsequently tried to make sti out of it. The ensuing aksharas are certainly tiye, and we must therefore read stitiye, though hitaye would be more in accordance with the usual formulas.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Hultzsch, Inscriptions of Aśoka, p. xc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Lüders, SBAW, 1913, p. 992.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> l. c., p. 994.

The whole inscription accordingly runs:

#### TEXT

Theüdorena meridarkhena pratițhavid(r)a ime sarira sakamuņisa bhag(r)avato bahujaņastitiye.

#### TRANSLATION

By Theodoros, the meridarkh, were established these relics of the Lord Śākyamuni, for the purpose of security of many people.

# II. PLATE I. 2: TAXILA COPPER PLATE INSCRIPTION OF A MERIDARKH

To the west of the Dharmarājikā stūpa in ancient Taxila is the village of Shāhpur, which is surrounded by remains of eight small stūpas, numbered 9–16 by Cunningham.¹ They have all been opened long ago by the villagers, and, according to Cunningham, no. 17, to the west of Shāhpur, yielded 'a copper plate inscription, in three or four pieces, which was given to Major Pearse eight years ago, or about A.D. 1855'.

The first fragment of the plate, containing the beginning, has subsequently disappeared, while the remaining three pieces have found their way to the Calcutta Museum.

The first notice of the inscription was given by Rajendralala Mitra,<sup>2</sup> who stated that the plate was found by Major Pearse himself and that Mr. E. Thomas thought that he could read the words *áyanachandra*, *viveka* and *viphala*. Then follows the note by Cunningham, in whose plate the inscription is reproduced as originating 'from Stupa in Jhaoli,' wherefore it has become known as the Jhaoli copper plate. Jhaoli is apparently the village called Jaoli in Cunningham's Report,<sup>3</sup> and described as 'situated in a gorge between two hills, about three-quarters of a mile to the south-east of Bādarpur, and upwards of four miles to the east-north-east of Shah-Dheri'.

A new edition and reproduction was published by Haraprasād Śāstrī.<sup>4</sup> Then follow a note by R. D. Banerji<sup>6</sup> and an edition by Professor F. W. Thomas.<sup>6</sup> It is no. 70 in Majumdar's List.

Rajendralala Mitra describes the plate as a narrow strip of copper  $9\frac{1}{2}$  in. by  $\frac{6}{8}$  in., broken into four fragments. The three pieces which remain are 3 in.,  $2\frac{3}{4}$  in., and  $2\frac{1}{2}$  in. long, respectively. The inscription has been reproduced in plate I. 2.

The characters are of a fairly early type, but not so old as those of the Swāt vase. The *u*-mātrā is intermediate between the short stroke of the Swāt vase and the loop of later records; cf. tu and thu. Ka has the same angular shape as on the Swāt vase, the Patika plate, the Lion Capital, &c. Kha agrees with the kha of the Swāt vase, and still more closely with that of the Lion Capital. Na has the pointed top which we find on the Swāt vase, the Muchai and Pājā records. It only occurs in such cases where also Sanskrit has u, and there is no instance of a dental u. Ya has the angular shape which we know from the Patika plate and other old inscriptions. The head of sa is not closed as in the Swāt vase, but the top of the leg is continued in a straight line upwards from the point of jointure as in the Mānsehrā inscription of the year 68, the Muchai record of the year 81, the Pājā epigraph of the year 111, &c. On the whole the palaeography points to a date in the second half of the first century B.C.

The opening word of the inscription has disappeared with the first fragment. Cunning-ham read sanivatsara, but admitted that the first letter looks more like a than sa. In his plate it looks like ta or ra, while Rajendralala's plate distinctly gives a. The second

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASI, ii, pp. 124 ff.; cf. plate LIX, no. 3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JASB, xxiv, 1855, pp. 328 ff., and plate xv, no. 3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> l.c., p. 146. <sup>4</sup> JPASB, iv, 1908,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> ibidem, vi, 1910, p. 486.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> JPASB, iv, 1908, pp. 362 ff. with plate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> JRAS, 1916, pp. 279 ff.

is a distinct va in the former, while the latter shows a short vertical below the left-hand termination of the horizontal, so that we might think of a defective la. The third looks like the head of dha in Cunningham's plate, while the other reproduction shows a letter which might be read as la, though the usual vertical top-stroke is missing. It is also conceivable that we have before us ska or a compound of ka and another letter, such as la. Then there is room enough for two more aksharas.

Nothing can be made out of such a state of affairs. The only thing that we can say is that the first word contained a name in the instrumental singular, agreeing with the ensuing word. As a mere guess I may mention Alaksadrena or Alaskadrena.

The next word was read miti 10 tena by Cunningham and metiakhena by Haraprasād Sāstrī, while Professor Thomas recognized that we have here the same title as in the Swāt vase inscription and read meridakhena = meridrakhena. There can only be doubt about the third akshara. I abstract from the apparent u-mātrā, which is evidently due to what Haraprasād Śāstrī describes as 'the twistings and indentations on the plate'. There remains what looks like do or le: a vertical, from which a horizontal protrudes towards the left, being terminated by a vertical rising above and continued below the horizontal. It seems probable that either the upper or the lower part of this vertical is due to a mistake of the engraver and I accept Professor Thomas's reading da, as there cannot be any doubt that the word is a rendering of the Greek  $\mu \epsilon \rho \iota \delta d \rho \chi \eta s$ . It should be noted that the ante-consonantic r is omitted in this word, while the Swāt vase reads meridarkhena.

The same is the case in the next word, sabhayakena, which certainly represents a Skr. sabhāryakena, together with his wife. We have no right to infer that the r was not sounded, the less so as its influence can be seen in the cerebralization of the d of meridakha.

Then follows thubo, where bo comes in the break between the fragments, so that the vertical has disappeared. Moreover, there is a similar downward prolongation of the top-stroke as in da of meridakha, which fact makes it still more probable that our reading of that letter is the right one.

The next word is clearly meant for *pratistavito*, though it looks more like *praristavito*. The apparent prolongation of the vertical of *ti* above the horizontal is accidental. The top of the letter is bent backwards, but this bend does not show in the estampage.

Then comes matapitu puyae, where pu comes in the break and has, consequently, become damaged.

The last word of the record was read agharachapuyaye by Cunningham, aghasa cha nayae by Haraprasād Śāstrī and aghadakshoṇayae by Professor Thomas. There can be no doubt that the last reading is right, and Professor Thomas's explanation of the word must also be accepted, that it represents a Sanskrit arghadakshiṇayai or is an error for the usual arogadakshiṇayae, Skr. arogyadakshiṇāyai; cf. the apparent aro[gha]dakshiṇi in the Jamālgaṛhī Pedestal inscription and arughadakshiṇae in inscriptions found at Miran in Chinese Turkestan.<sup>1</sup>

We thus arrive at the following:

#### TEXT

.... meri[da]khena sabhayakena thubo pra[ti]stavito matapitu puyac aghadaksho-(i)nayae.

#### TRANSLATION

By ...., the Meridarkh, together with his wife, the stūpa was established, in honour of (his) mother and father, for the presentation of a respectful offering.

### III. PLATE I. 3: BAJAUR SEAL INSCRIPTION OF THEODAMAS.

In the village of Miankilli in Bajaur, south-east of Jalālābād, some engraved stones have been found, which were acquired by the Assistant Commissioner of Mardan, Captain, later Major, Sir Harold Deane and transmitted to M. Émile Senart, who published them with a plate in 1889.<sup>1</sup>

One of them, M. Senart's no. 1, contains a short Kharoshthī legend, reproduced in plate I. 3.

The stone itself scems to have disappeared. According to the reproduction, which is stated to be in double size, it is  $\frac{6}{8}$  in. high and  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. broad, and is slightly damaged on the right side and at the bottom. It shows a standing figure, facing towards the right. The right arm is bent, with the hand inclined towards the face, while the left hand holds a branch or a corn-stalk, or perhaps a sceptre. A line following the back is, according to M. Senart, probably meant to indicate the dress.

Behind the figure and along the left rim runs the legend, beginning behind the head and ending behind the middle of the leg. Five aksharas are visible, but M. Senart states that he thinks he can see traces of a sa in the damaged portion at the bottom.

The characters are well cut and clearly legible, but do not allow any certain inferences about the age of the seal. The *u*-mātrā has the shape of a triangle, a form which is found in isolated cases in the Zeda and Ārā inscriptions. The *e*-stroke in the second akshara the is irregularly placed at the right end of the horizontal. Ma has a curious indenture on both sides, which has its nearest parallel in the Taxila gold plate. The sa shows a slight prolongation of the leg above the juncture and reminds us of the shape of this letter in Fatehjang, Muchai, Pājā, and, especially, Mārguz.

If any inference can be drawn from the characters, we may assign the seal to the first half of the first century of the Christian era, but such a dating can only be approximative.

The reading is not subject to doubt. It gives su Theiidama or, if M. Senart is right in seeing a sa after ma, su Theiidamasa.

I have discussed the meaning of su in the Introduction, where I have suggested that it may represent an attempt at rendering the Saka word shau, king. At all events, it seems necessary, as M. Senart says, to compare it with the syllable  $\sigma v$  occurring in the coin legends of Hermaeus and Kujūla Kadphises, and it is a priori probable that Theüdama was a contemporary of those rulers.

His name shows that he was a Greek, for Theüdama evidently represents Greek  $\Theta\epsilon o\delta \dot{a}\mu as$ ,  $\Theta\epsilon\iota o\delta \dot{a}\mu as$  or  $\Theta\epsilon \delta\delta \eta\mu os$ , with the same u for Greek o as on the Swāt vase. We do not know who this chief was, but it may be surmised that he lived in the Kābul country at the time when the Greek dominion was overthrown by the Parthians and, subsequently, by the Kushāṇas.

Техт su Theüdama[sa]

TRANSLATION of King Theodamas.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JA, vIII, xiii, 1889, pp. 364 ff.

### IV. PLATE I. 4: PARIS, CORNELIAN INSCRIPTION

In the cabinet of medals in Paris is found a cornelian, of unknown origin, with a Kharoshthī legend. It was brought to the notice of M. Senart by M. Babelon and edited together with the Bajaur seal. I reproduce it in plate I. 4 from a cast, which has kindly been provided by the Paris authorities at the request of the Foreign Office. It is published in this place, because it seems to be broadly contemporaneous with the Bajaur seal of the Greek Theüdama.

The stone is oblong and rounded,  $\frac{6}{8}$  in. high and  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. broad. It shows a standing person, facing towards the right. The right hand is stretched out in front of the figure, the left carries a knotted stick or sceptre. The head-dress is provided with two long bands streaming backwards. The dress is fastened round the waist by means of a girdle.

M. Senart is of opinion that it is impossible to separate the stone by a long interval from the period of the Parthian rulers Gondophernes and Abdagases. With regard to the figure, he thinks that it must be some divine being. The corresponding figure on the coins of Gondophernes and Abdagases was described as representing Zeus by Professor Gardner,<sup>2</sup> while M. Senart follows Wilson in leaving the question open.

In front of the standing figure, from the feet and upwards, runs a legend consisting of five Kharoshṭhī letters,  $\frac{3}{32}$  to  $\frac{4}{32}$  in. high. They have been read by M. Senart as *Puñamatasa*.

The characters seem to be slightly older than those of the Bajaur scal. The u of pu consists of a short stroke projecting from the bottom of the vertical and provided with an upward bend. The sa has a rounded head and the lower vertical projects slightly towards the head. The nearest parallel seems to be the sa of the Pājā inscription of the year 111, and this agrees with M. Senart's approximate dating.

The reading of the two first aksharas is absolutely certain, viz. puña. The third is a rather square ma, and below is a short horizontal stroke, which is well known from the coins of the Greek rulers, and which Professor Bühler was no doubt right in explaining as a rudimentary indication of the vertical standing originally on the right. The fourth akshara is an angular ta. In M. Senart's plate it seems to be provided with a short horizontal running backwards at the bottom. The cast from which the new plate is prepared shows that the original has no such stroke. The whole is, accordingly, Puñamatasa, representing a Sanskrit Punyamatasya.

We have no means for settling the question about the identity of Puñamata. It is even possible that the word is not a name but a title. We can do no more than to give the reading and translation of the legend.

Text Puñamatasa. TRANSLATION of Punyamata.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JA, VIII, xiii, 1889, pp. 364 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Coins of the Greek and Scythic kings of Bactria and India, pp. 103 and 107.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Indische Palaeographie, para. 9 A, no. 12.

In connexion with the epigraphs which seem to have some connexion with Greek rule in India I shall deal with two inscriptions from the north-west, which cannot be assigned to any definite period. In the first place there is a short inscription from Tīrath, of a comparatively early date. In the second we know of the existence of a rock-inscription from Saddo in Swāt, which it has proved impossible to copy, owing to the inaccessibility of the country.

### V. PLATE I. 5: TIRATH ROCK INSCRIPTION

The village of Tīrath is situated on the border of the Swāt Kohistān. Near the village is a rock or boulder, showing two large pādukās and below them a Kharoshṭhī inscription of eleven letters.

We are able to identify these footprints with absolute certainty.

In his account of Udyāna Fa-hien 1 mentions a spot where the Buddha coming to Udyāna 'left a print of his foot, which is long or short according to the ideas of the beholder'. Hüan-tsang 2 also speaks of the large flat stone with the Buddha's footprints, the size of which varied with the religious merit of the measurer. He locates it on the north bank of the Swāt river thirty li to the south-west of the spring of the Nāga Apalāla, the reputed source of the river, about 250 li to the north-east of Mêng-chieh-li, i. e. Manglaur.

Sir Harold Deane recognized that the locality must be looked for in the neighbourhood of the present head of the Swāt river near Kalām. At Tīrath he discovered the footprints and the inscription. Two estampages of the latter were prepared and forwarded on Sir Harold's behalf to the late Professor Bühler by Sir Aurel Stein.4

Professor Bühler, who was under the impression that there are two inscriptions, published a facsimile of one of the estampages, reproduced in plate I. 5, with his reading of the inscription in 1898.<sup>5</sup>

The characters are of ancient type. Ka has the short straight top-stroke of the Aśoka and Saka inscriptions and points to the same time as the Shahdaur epigraph. Ni has a more pointed head than in the Aśoka and Patika records, and stands between the forms occurring in the Swāt vase and the Taxila silver-scroll. The i-stroke crosses the curve of the head, as in the Swāt vase, the Pāṭhyār and Patika inscriptions. Dha stands between the Aśoka and Patika forms, being less curvilinear than the former and less sloping than the latter. Similar forms are found in the Taxila gold plate, the Taxila vase, and the Fatehjang stone. Pa has almost the same shape as in the Patika plate. Ba has a less pronounced bend of the top than in the Patika plate and reminds us of some of the Aśoka forms and those of the Swāt and Taxila vases. Mu stands in the upper line, and the right top-stroke is short as on the Lion Capital. The nearest parallel is, however, the mu of the late Jauliā inscription no. 10. The most

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See James Legge, A record of Buddhistic kingdoms, being an account by the Chinese monk Få-hien of his travels in India and Ceylon (A. D. 399-414) in search of the Buddhist books of discipline. Translated and annotated, with a Corean recension of the Chinese text. Oxford, 1886, p. 29.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See Samuel Beal, Si-yu-ki. Buddhist records of the Western World, translated from the Chinese of Hiuen Tsiang (A. D. 629). London, 1884, vol. i, p. 123.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> JRAS, 1896, p. 656. 
<sup>4</sup> Cf. his Serindia, p. 8.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Cf. Anzeiger der Kaiserlichen Akademie der Wissenschaften. Historisch philosophische Classe, xxxv, Wien, 1898, pp. 12 ff.; Majumdar's List, no. 91.

characteristic letter is sa, which has its nearest parallels in the Pāṭhyār and Swāt vase inscriptions, the lower vertical being prolonged upwards in a straight line and almost touching the top.

On the whole there cannot be any doubt that the record is old, and especially the shape of sa seems to show that it is older than the Patika plate. We may tentatively assign it to about the middle of the first century B.C.

Reading and interpretation do not present much difficulty. It is possible that the akshara which is used for the cerebral n in the Aśoka inscriptions here and on the Swät vase stands for the dental n. As stated in the chapter about grammar I shall, however, transliterate the letter as n, leaving the question about the actual pronunciation open.

In one of Bühler's reproductions there is a short vertical hanging down from the head of the first akshara. It is evidently an o-mātrā, of the same kind as in the Aśoka inscriptions, and Bühler was no doubt right in reading bo. In the Taxila meridarkh plate and in the Lahore inscription no. 25 the o of bo is differently placed, and projects from the vertical. The form bodhasa is in accordance with a tendency which is well known in Indian Prākrits, where o is sometimes used instead of u before consonantal compounds.<sup>2</sup>

TEXT
Bodhasa Śakamuņisa padaņi.
TRANSLATION
Foot-prints of the Buddha Śākyamuni.

### VI. SWAT ROCK INSCRIPTION

Sir Aurel Stein <sup>3</sup> writes about another Kharoshṭhī inscription from Swāt: 'Among the paper estampages which had been brought to Colonel Deane by his native agents, and which he handed over to me early in 1898, there was one which showed a rock surface curiously cut up by natural cross lines, recalling the threads of some woven fabric. There were traces of some Kharoshṭhī characters also. Some place in the Upper Swāt Valley was vaguely indicated as the provenance. The publication of the estampage was prevented by the death of Professor Bühler, for whom it was reserved, and subsequently by the doubts which (justly enough) arose about the genuineness of the many "inscriptions in unknown characters" supplied to Colonel Deane by the less scrupulous of his agents.'

Sir Aurel thinks that the impression has been taken on the rock where the Buddha was stated to have dried his clothes, referring us to Hsüan-tsang (l. c.), who says that the lines of the robe were still distinct like carving.

No further information has been forthcoming about this inscription.

### VII. PLATE I. 6: SADDO ROCK INSCRIPTION

The village of Saddo is situated on the left or eastern bank of the Panjkora river, to the west of the Katgala pass, on the road leading from Swāt to Chitrāl. On a rock is found a Kharoshthī inscription, engraved in large letters.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. no. 27 iii in plate I of Bühler's Palaeography.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Pischel, Grammatik der Präkrit-Sprachen, para. 125.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Serindia, p. 8<sup>22</sup>.

<sup>4</sup> Majumdar's List, no. 57.

The only information we possess about this record is a notice by Cunningham,<sup>1</sup> who publishes a copy, reproduced in plate I. 6, made by his servants 'under great difficulties, and not without danger'. 'It is therefore much less distinct than it would have been if taken under more favourable circumstances.'

Cunningham goes on to remark: 'Enough has been copied to show that the record is not later than the first century of the Christian era', and gives a reading of the record, so far as it has been copied, stating that the letters 'are too scattered to yield any intelligible sentence'.

The plate shows remnants of four lines, but no sense can be made out.

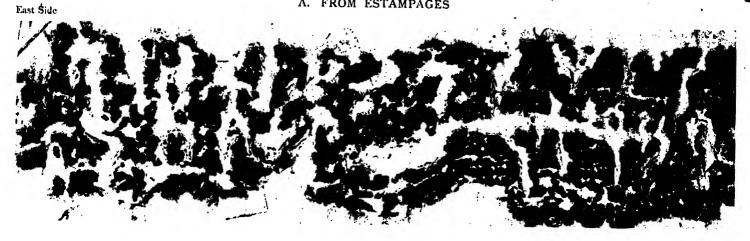
Cunningham read the first line as masa Chetra di, supplying vase after di. His reading cannot, however, be maintained. The plate seems to give matuminitrana, but it is possible that the apparent min is misdrawn for dhi, so that we should read matudhitrana, cf. the doubtful dhitirana in the Fatehjang inscription.

- L. 2 was read as ru.. mudetama samja, but looks like da.. [mukha] damasvoja.
- ,, 3 was read as esa hana ... traa ... ñajoya, and
- " 4 as yegatuheasa . . . ja.

I refrain from attempting to improve on this reading, though I cannot accept it in all details.

<sup>1</sup> ASI, v, pp. 62 f., and plate XVI, no. 5.

A. FROM ESTAMPAGES



North Side





B. FROM A PHOTOGRAPH







C. CUNNINGHAM



The bulk of Kharoshthi inscriptions belongs to the period of Indo-Scythian conquest, and the Indo-Scythians were, as we have seen in the introduction, the first to mark their founding of an Indian empire by introducing eras of their own.

There are, as stated above, two such eras, and the older one goes back to those Sakas who invaded the Sindh country in the first century B. C. and also established themselves in the western Panjāb. They were here succeeded by the Parthians, but the Saka era remained in use and was later on taken over by the Kushāṇas, who restored the Scythian empire. In the northern districts it was even continued after the rise of a new and still more powerful Kushāṇa dynasty in the second century A. D.

In the following we shall discuss the records dated in the old Saka era, and some undated inscriptions found in the same neighbourhood or otherwise connected with them.

### VIII. PLATE II: MAIRA INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 58

Maira is a small village in the Salt Range, Jhelum District, ten miles to the west of the Kallar Kahār Lake, in 32° 43′ N. and 72° 40′ E. In an old well at Maira Colonel Robinson discovered a Kharoshṭhī inscription, and both he and Colonel Bristow sent copies to Cunningham, who published them together with two more copies, prepared by himself and a native servant from paper impressions.¹

The inscription was engraved on three slabs of kankar stone, on the east, north, and west sides of the well. The two slabs on the east and north sides have since been removed to the Lahore Museum, where they are now as no. I. 109. The north slab has been broken into two pieces, one I ft. 8 in. long. and 8 in. high, the other only 5 in. long. The east slab measures 2 ft. 2 in. by 7 in. The third slab seems to have disappeared, and the part of the inscription which it contained is only known from Cunningham's rough plate. The remaining portion is reproduced in plate II from estampages and from a photograph.

The height of individual letters varies between  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. and  $2\frac{1}{2}$  in. The state of preservation is not good, and it has not been possible for me to give a satisfactory reading and interpretation. I am indebted to Professor Thomas for some valuable suggestions.

Nor have I been able to form a clear idea about the age of the inscription. Some of the characters are, however, so similar to those of the Patika plate of the year 78 that it seems impossible to refer the record to the Kushāṇa period. The mutilated cha has the distinct lower curve which we know from the oldest Kharoshṭhī records; da, dha, na, ba, and la remind us of the Patika plate, and there seem to be traces of the upward continuation of the leg of sa which is characteristic of old inscriptions.

ASI, v, 1875, pp. 93 f., with plate XXVIII; cf. Majumdar, List no. 35.

The east slab, A, contains two lines of writing..

L. 1. The first akshara seems to be a mutilated sam, though Cunningham may be right in reading su and Professor Thomas in reading sa. The second may be kra or pra, as read by Cunningham, the third and fourth ones are apparently mi and sa respectively. The most probable reading seems to be samkramisa, which may be the genitive of samkrāmin. Samkrāmayitum can mean 'to conquer' and samkrāmin may mean 'engaged on an expedition of conquest', 'conquering'.

Then come the lower part of a cha; a damaged ta or tu, a mutilated pu or ku, two aksharas which may be ra and ro; traces which point to a dha of the same shape as in the Patika plate; something which may be ba; and a fairly distinct la, whereafter there is room enough for one letter. Cunningham read dhainavadasa-cha la, but his materials were much less satisfactory than mine. I think it possible to read chatupurarodhibalasa, whose army obstructs four towns, but that is little more than a mere guess.

L. 2 was read by Cunningham as apadalacha...nanayapa dana. The first word is, however, clearly atibalana. Then follows a deep groove, and two or three letters seem to have disappeared entirely. After the break comes a damaged letter which may be na, but there are traces of a line crossing the vertical, and one might think of rna. The next letter may be di or ni; the last ones of the line may be yapadana. We might guess at samvarnaniyapadana, but Professor Thomas may be right in reading...niyatida...

The north slab, B, is in a still worse condition. It contains remains of three lines.

L. 1. The first two aksharas, which are found on the small fragment, seem to be sata. Cunningham read savasa. Then there is a gap followed by signs which Cunningham seems to have been right in reading as sain 20 20 10 4 4.

The record accordingly seems to be dated in the year 58, and if this date is referred to the same era as that of the Patika plate, it would correspond to the year 27–26 B.C. Though I feel great misgivings, I do not think that such an early date is impossible. It should be borne in mind that Maira is situated between the probable starting point of the Saka conquest of the Panjāb in Sindh and Taxila, and that the district of Chachh, which is probably the Chukhsa of the Patika plate, is in the immediate neighbourhood.

L. 2 was not read by Cunningham and is much damaged. Of the first akshara only faint traces remain, which cannot be made out. The second may be spa, and the third again is hopelessly damaged. One might think of aspayusa, but I shall not try to restore the word. Then comes a defaced spot, followed by an illegible akshara and three signs, which may stand for 10 1 1, in which case we should have the day of the month, perhaps the 12th Asvayuj.

L. 3. Cunningham read the first word as amami. I can only read the final mi, or perhaps, mami, which Professor Thomas proposes to restore as sanigharamami. Then Cunningham read nama namathava. I can see sramanami, though the third akshara might also be ne. Professor Thomas takes mi, for which we might also read ga, as the beginning of some Sramana's name. The last two aksharas may be diva, after which there is room for about four aksharas.

The next slab, C, was read by Cunningham as chhatrasa 4ya atra kha atta. His plate is too unreliable to make it advisable to attempt to read the line. It may only be noted that the first word might be moasa, i. e. 'of Moga'.

Professor Thomas thinks that the inscription begins with the west slab, running on in the order of a pradakshina. He proposes to read the last two letters of the west slab atha, i.e. athapanichase, whereof perhaps the se is to be seen in l. 1 of the north slab.

The initial sa of the east slab might, finally, be the termination of the Śramaṇa's name. I do not venture to do anything more than suggest a reading of A and B, without attempting to give a connected translation.

### A

L. t sam[k]ramisa [chatupurarodhiba]la[sa\*].
,, 2 atibalana . . . . . yapadana.

B

L. 1 . . [śa[ta] . . . [sam 20 20 10 4 4]. ,, 2 [śpa] . . . 10 1 1 . . . . . ,, 3 . . . mi śramaṇami[di]va . . . .

### IX. PLATE III. 1: SHAHDAUR INSCRIPTION OF DAMIJADA

Two Kharoshṭhī inscriptions found in the Agror valley point to the conclusion that the Hazāra country belonged to the old Saka empire.

The name Agror is derived from Atyugrapura, which is mentioned by Kalhaṇa, Rājataraṅgiṇī viii, 3402, and in his translation of that work Sir Aurel Stein has shown that a Prākrit form of this name, Aityugura may be at the bottom of Ἰθάγουρος, mentioned by Ptolemy vii. 1, 45 as one of the towns of Ἄρσα οτ Οὔαρσα, i.e. Uraśā, Urasā, which is already mentioned in the gaṇas to Pāṇini.

In the Oghi Kanungo circle in the Agror valley, two miles east of Shamdhara and about four miles due east of Oghi, is the hamlet of Shahdaur, shown as Shodaur on the half-inch to the mile sheet 43 F., N.W., of the Indian Atlas, in 34° 30′ N and 73° 4′ E.

One mile south-cast of the hamlet there is a narrow glen, descending from the Tanglai hill and containing some terraced fields. In one of these is found a rock or boulder of irregular shape, overlooking a small spring in a contiguous gorge. The boulder, which measures 13 ft. by 16 ft., marks the southern edge of a small field and is of grey friable sandstone with a rough surface.

It bears two Kharoshthi inscriptions, one in two lines on the perpendicular side facing to the north, and another with remnants of five lines, on the top. According to Khan Bahadur Mian Wasiuddin, who examined the site in 1924, the latter must have extended further to the south, where the surface is stated to be greatly disfigured from age and other causes. The estampages, however, do not lend support to this supposition.

In the hot weather of 1924 a villager of Shamdhara gave information about the inscriptions to Mr. T. B. Copeland, I.C.S., Deputy Commissioner of the Hazāra District, who informed the Director General of Archaeology of the matter in October and forwarded some photographs and rough tracings. A fuller report was submitted in November by Khan Bahadur Mian Wasiuddin, who had found by excavation that there is no continuation below the surface to the inscription on the perpendicular side. Nor did an examination of the neighbourhood bring to light any further evidence or coins, but only some glazed fragments of coarse pottery. Local inquiries about coins were also in vain. Every patch of level space in all directions has been brought under cultivation, and no ancient walls are said to be in evidence anywhere. 'Burjs', however, are said to have existed before Government occupied the valley.

Estampages of the inscriptions were taken, and a paper was prepared for the Epigraphia Indica.<sup>1</sup>

Since then I have received new and better materials from Mr. Hargreaves, and the plate which is now published shows that the inference drawn from the old estampages must be modified in some respects.

The state of preservation is not good throughout. There cannot, however, be any doubt that the inscriptions are fairly old. We may note the *cha*, which reminds us of the Mānsehrā and Sihila vase inscriptions; the angular *bha*, which has almost the same shape as in the Patika plate; the la, which has its nearest parallels in the Sihila and Lion Capital inscriptions, and the distinct prolongation of the leg of sa, which slopes upwards and forwards as in the Patika record.

The inscription on the perpendicular face consists, as already mentioned, of two lines. The first is apparently complete, is 6 ft. 2 ins. long and contains aksharas varying in size from 3 to 4 ins. The second, with aksharas 2 to  $3\frac{1}{2}$  ins. high, seems to have been of about half the length, and the last aksharas are badly defaced.

L. 1. The first akshara is evidently ra, of the same shape as in the Sihila vase inscription, and the second seems to be ja. There is, it is true, an apparent cross-bar, but the photographs which Mr. Hargreaves has placed at my disposal make me inclined to think that it represents an unevenness in the stone.

Then come two aksharas connected by a horizontal bottom-stroke. The first is apparently a na, and it is possible that the bottom-stroke connecting it with the ensuing letter is meant to represent an o-mātrā. If rajano should not be read as rajino, we may compare the instrumental  $r\bar{a}an\bar{a}$ , mentioned by Simharāja.<sup>2</sup>

The photographs show that the head of the ensuing letter has become damaged. The reading is not certain, both na and da being possible.

The next akshara is certainly mi and not ga. Also here there is an apparent bottom-stroke, and such apparent strokes are also found elsewhere, e.g. both in the ensuing ja and in the following akshara, which I originally took to be na, but which is clearly identical with the first akshara of 1.4 of the second Shahdaur inscription, where the reading da seems to be certain.

Then comes sa, and the second word must accordingly be read as Namijadasa, or Damijadasa.

We do not know of any such ruler as the  $r\bar{a}jan$  Namijada or Damijada. The title  $r\bar{a}jan$  is also used by the Western Kshatrapas, where we also find a royal name ending in jada, viz.  $D\bar{a}majada$ , also written  $D\bar{a}maysada$ , where ys has been recognized by Professor Lüders  $^3$  as denoting a voiced s. It seems probable that jada is identical with the jada or ysada of  $D\bar{a}majada$ , and that the name is, consequently, Iranian. Damijada may even have something to do with  $D\bar{a}majada$ , wherefore I prefer to read the fourth akshara as da, and it is perhaps worth remembering that the syllables dami are sometimes found on the coins of Maues. At all events it seems probable that Damijada was a Saka ruler in the Agror valley.

The ensuing passage is not intelligible to me. The first akshara is sa; the second may be the lower part of a ka, assuming the lower horizontal to be the continuation of the flaw represented by the two strokes to the left of the akshara; the third again is sa; the fourth is quite uncertain. It reminds me of the la which stands later on in the same line, and if the lower projection is an o-stroke, we might read lo. The head is, however,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Not yet published.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Prakritarupavatara, ed. Hultzsch, London 1909, vii, 24.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> SBAW, 1913, pp. 406 ff.

<sup>4</sup> Gardner, pp. 68, no. 4; 69, no. 9; 71, no. 18.

rectilinear, while it is rounded in the ensuing la, and if the stroke about the head and the projecting horizontal are due to the roughness of the stone, we might think of reading va. The fifth akshara might be the bottom of ka, but also a  $\delta a$ . It is placed lower down than the surrounding letters, and it is possible that we have to do with the compound  $l\delta a$ . The sixth letter has disappeared. If we assume that it was re, we might think of restoring the whole as  $sakasavat\delta are$ , in the Saka year, in which case our inscription would prove that the era used in the oldest Kharoshthi inscriptions is a Saka institution. If the fourth akshara is a l, sakasala might be a compound of saka and middle Persian  $s\bar{a}l$ , year. The whole passage is, however, so defaced that I shall abstain from further attempts.

Then follow some aksharas which look very clear in the estampage, but which I cannot make out. The first looks like a. The photographs before me make me, however, inclined to think that the head is damaged. If there was another curve on the other side of the vertical, it would be possible to read sha. The second letter does not look like anything I have seen elsewhere. One might think of reading kri, but the upper horizontal is much too long and the right-hand hook much too small. The long horizontal reminds me of tha, and the short bar to the right of ta. The only thing I can suggest is to read shti. The third akshara looks like the ha, no. 37 II of plate I, of Bühler's Palaeography, might, however, also be a mutilated am. With the utmost reserve I therefore read shashtihae, taking -haa to represent the suffix tha of chaturtha, panchatha, &c., +-ka. In that case the ensuing three signs, the last of which is mutilated, would be the figure twenty thrice repeated.

I feel so little confident about the reading, however, that I do not venture to assert that our inscription is one of the year 60, i. e. 25-24 B.C. The only thing which seems to be comparatively certain is that the passage following after *Damijadasa* has contained a date.

Then follows sabhadusa savalavadhapitrasa, an akshara which seems to be rdha, and an unmistakable cha. The genitive sabhadusa must apparently be connected with the preceding Damijadasa and indicate some person associated with him. Bhadu may stand for Bhandu, in which case we might think of the word Bhandu, which occurs in the Gana to Pāṇini iv. ii. 77 after Suvāstu and Varnu and may be the name of a country in the neighbourhood. Sabhadusa would then mean 'together with the ruler of Bhandu'. Savalavadhapitra might represent Skr. sa- (or sva-) Balavardha (or Vyālavardha)-pitra, or Svabalavardhapitrā. We may compare names such as Nandivardha and Mitravardha, and, with regard to the compound, sadha Hanadhitra, together with his daughter Hana, on the Mathurā Lion Capital.

If the reading of the akshara following after the ensuing sa as rdha is correct, sardha can hardly be anything else than Skr. sārdham, which is sometimes used at the end of compounds.

L. 2 opens with mitravadha, followed by an akshara which seems to be na. I take Mitravadhana to be a name; cf. Valavadha in l. 1 and Sanskrit doublets such as Mitravardha, Mitravardhana; Nandivardha, Nandivardhana.

Then follows an akshara which seems to be pa or pu, and further apparently trah[i]/a. I tentatively read p[u]trah[i]/a[e].

The remaining portion of the line seems to be written in somewhat smaller letters. If we assume that the ta was followed by an e of about the same size, the next akshara would be represented by a horizontal crossed by an i-stroke, and remnants of a vertical, i. e. it was perhaps vi. Then comes a curved line, which reminds me of the pra of the Taxila silver scroll; further ma, ta and something which may be a damaged bhra. The

apparent bottom-stroke is in some of my photographs separated from the vertical and of the same kind as the traces seen below the preceding ta. The following aksharas may be ta and ra, and with great reserve I read vipramatabhratara, thinking that this may have been followed by some such word as puyae or puyayainto, cf. matapitarain puyayainto in the Patika plate.

This account of an important inscription I feel to be very unsatisfactory. This much seems to follow: that the Saka empire at a comparatively early date extended as far as the Agror valley.

### TEXT

- L. 1 ra[ja]n[o] Damijadasa sakasa . . . . . . [shashṭihae 20 20 20] sabhaḍusa savalavaḍhapitra sardha cha
- ,, 2 Mitravadhanap[u]tra[hita][e\*] [vipra]mata[bhratara].

### TRANSLATION

Of the rājan Damijada (in the Saka . . . sixty -60)- together with Bhaḍu, and together with (his) father Valavardha, for the welfare of his son Mitravardhana, . . . Brahmans, his mother, brother.

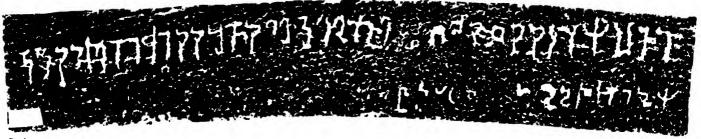
### X. PLATE III. 2: SHAHDAUR INSCRIPTION OF ŚIVARAKSHITA

The second Shahdaur inscription, on the upper surface of the boulder, is much damaged and perhaps incomplete. There are altogether five lines, and I can see no traces of there having been more lines, as surmised by Mian Wasiuddin.

- L. 1. The beginning is quite illegible, and four or five syllables have disappeared. What can be read is ayasa sam, followed by traces of four or five signs. Sam is probably the usual abbreviation of same atsare, and the ensuing signs must in that case have been numerical figures. It would be possible to read them as 1 100 1 1, i.e. 102, but also as 20 20 . . . e.g. as 80 and something or 90. If I am right in my explanation of sain the preceding ayasa must be the name or part of the name of a ruler, and it is tempting to think of Aya, Azes, in which case the defaced aksharas at the beginning of the line might be restored as maharayasa or maharajasa. A priori there is no objection to assuming that our inscription belongs to the time of Azes, and some year between 80 and 102 would not be unlikely, if my explanation of the double dating of the Takht-i-Bāhī inscription, as referring to the 103rd year of the Saka era and the 26th after the accession of Azes, is accepted. Nor would there be any serious difficulty in assuming that our record is about forty years later than the Damijada inscription. The date of the latter is, moreover, quite uncertain. In view of the general uncertainty as regards the reading of the first line I cannot, however, do more than state that I think it probable that our inscription belongs to the reign of Azes, and I publish it in this place, in connexion with the other Shahdaur inscription, without attempting to arrange it chronologically.
- L. 2. The first word is *Sivarakshitasa*, where the *ta* in the estampage looks like *tva*. There cannot, however, be any reasonable doubt that the apparent *v*-curve is simply a groove in the stone.

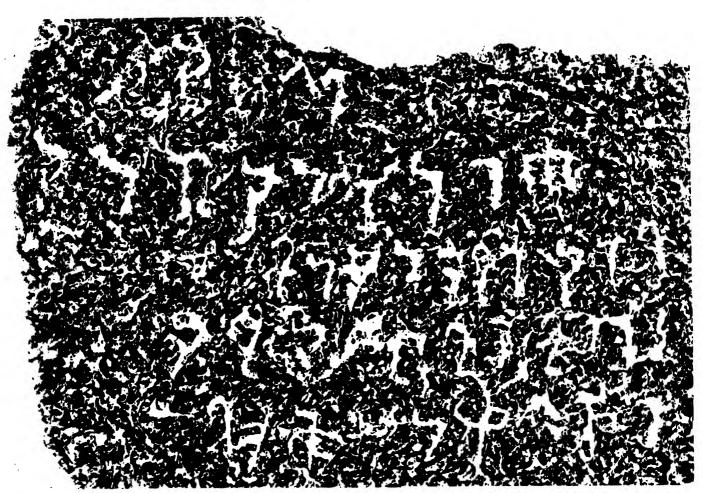
We do not know who this Sivarakshita was. During his excavations at Sirkap Sir John Marshall found a copper seal with the figure of Siva in the centre and the legend

### 1. SHAHDAUR INSCRIPTION OF DAMIJADA



Scale o r

## 2. SHAHDAUR INSCRIPTION OF ŚIVARAKSHITA



Scale 0.2

Śwarakshitasa both in Kharoshṭhī and Brāhmī letters.¹ The Kharoshṭhī aksharas are of the same type as in our inscription, but it is impossible to say anything about the possible identity of the Śwarakshita of the two records.

The ensuing akshara is not intelligible to me, and some of the strokes visible in the estampage are evidently due to the roughness of the stone. The vertical is evidently part of the akshara, and the same seems to be the case with the curve to the right of the top. The most likely reading is therefore sha or shu. The two ensuing aksharas are ta and sa, and shutasa might represent Skr. srutasya. The reading is, however, quite uncertain.

L. 3. The first word seems to be adhasa, which may represent Skr. ādhyasya, from ādhya, rich, wealthy.

The next three aksharas are uncertain. The first may be dha, with its head protruding above the line, or va; the second seems rather to be na than a, and the third reminds me of later forms of tha, with traces of an e- or i-mātrā. Then follows tasa, and as a mere guess, I read dhanathitasa, or vanathitasa. Then comes an akshara which seems to be cha, of a later type than in the Damijada inscription and more like the cha of the Taxila silver scroll.

The ensuing letter seems to be i, but night be a mutilated hi. The rest of the line is quite defaced.

L. 4 opens with a comparatively clear dasahi, evidently followed by kahapa and an akshara which may be na, but is made unrecognizable through several irregular strokes which are clearly due to the roughness of the surface. Then come fairly clear traces of a sa, an akshara which may be a blurred ha, but also a  $\tilde{n}a$ , and finally a sa, with traces of an e-stroke and perhaps also a r-stroke. I therefore read dasahi kahapanasahasre[hi], for ten thousand kārshāpaṇas, and infer that the inscription records a donation by the rich and wealthy Śivarakshita. The character and purpose of the donation must have been mentioned in the missing portion of 1. 3 or of 1. 4.

L. 5. The first akshara is probably a and the second bhu. Abhu may be the agrist of the base  $bh\bar{u}$ , Skr.  $abh\bar{u}t$ , Ardhamāgadhī  $abh\bar{u}$ , or else bhu may, as pointed out to me by Professor Thomas, belong to the ensuing yo, bhuyo corresponding to Skr.  $bh\bar{u}yah$ .

Then comes yo Golama, and three blurred letters and traces of at least one more. The first one may be sta, though the cross-stroke seems to run out in a long curve. If all the cross lines are accidental, we should have a va. The second looks like a sloping lo or la and the third like a or o. We might think of Skr. sthalaja or sthalaka, the latter being a designation of some bones on the back. But I am unable to find any satisfactory explanation.

Reading and explanation are, accordingly, only tentative:

### TEXT

- L. I . . . . . Ayasa sam. . . .
  - 2 Śivarakshi[ta]sa [shu?]tasa
  - 3 adhasa [dhanathi]tasa cha i . . . .
  - 4 daśahi kahapa[na]sa[ha]s[re] . . . .
  - 5 abhu yo Gotama[stalao?] . . .

### TRANSLATION

(During the reign) of ... Azes, anno..., (a donation) of Śivarakskita, the renowned (?) rich and wealthy one, took place ... with ten thousand kārshāpaṇas ... which ... of Cotama.

### XI. PLATE IV. 2: MĀNSEHRĀ INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 68

No. 5558 of the Indian Museum, Calcutta, is a slab, broken into two pieces, 4 ft. high and 4 ft. 5 in. broad. It was brought from Mansehra by Mr. Caddy and entered in the Museum's journal on February 1, 1898.

It contains a fragmentary Kharoshthī inscription,1 which has not been published before. The state of preservation is not good. The whole right-hand portion is missing, and the upper left-hand corner has broken off. There are eight drilled holes on the inscribed surface, and several letters are defaced. The size of individual letters is, on an average, 3 in.

The characters are of the Saka variety. Attention may be drawn to cha in 1. 2. which has the same shape as in the Shahdaur and Patika inscriptions; to the distinct chhi in 1. 10; to the straight angle of the head and the forward slope of the leg of ta; to the broad angular shape of ya; to the slight upward slope of the head of la; to the square shape of  $\delta a$ ; to the angular head and the straight upward prolongation of the leg of sa, and to the compound spa in 1.8. The palaeography of the inscription seems on the whole to assign it to about the same time as the Taxila copper-plate of the year 78.

The beginning of the lines is missing, and this circumstance considerably adds to the difficulty of reading and interpreting the record.

L. 1. The three first aksharas are certainly adhasha, and the fourth and fifth seem to be thi and a, respectively. Adhashathia can hardly be anything else than some form or derivation of the numeral 68, cf. Ardhamagadhi adhasathi, where we find the same double treatment of old sht. The form adha for ashta is already found in the Asoka inscriptions 2 in the word adhakosikya, at intervals of eight kos, but does not seem to have been used unless ashta occurs in the beginning of a compound.

A numeral at the beginning of an inscription can hardly mean anything else than a date, and the inscription accordingly seems to belong to the year 68. If we refer this to the old Saka era, the corresponding year will, according to Dr. van Wijk's calculations, be 17-16 B.C., and there does not seem to be any serious objection to such a dating.

The missing portion at the beginning of l. 1 may have contained the name of a ruler and some word for 'year', but it is impossible to make any reliable estimate of its length. What follows after adhashathi cannot be made out.

L. 2. The three first aksharas are esao and the fourth seems to be ja. The fifth has almost disappeared in the hole excavated at this place. There seem to be traces of a lower vertical and of a head, and the reading sa is possible, but far from being certain.

Even if the reading esaojasa were certain, the interpretation would be extremely doubtful. In the Jamalgarhi inscription of the year 359 we find aspain for Skr. asvayuj. But we are not justified in assuming that y might disappear in this word in an old record like the Mansehra one. Moreover  $\delta a$  for Skr.  $\delta va$  would make difficulties, and o for uwould be as difficult to explain as e for a. If we read esaojasa it would be simpler to think of Skr. aisa and ojas, and explain 'through the strength of Siva', or sa should be separated from esa oja and taken together with the following. If the indistinct strokes following after the damaged letter represent a mu of the same shape as in the Fatehjang inscription, such must be the case. The next akshara is also damaged, but the lower part looks like the bottom of chha. Then follows a distinct cha. If we read samuchhacha, we must probably restore samuchhicha, corresponding to Skr. samuchchhittya, having

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> No. 40 in Majumdar's List.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Hultzsch, Inscriptions of Asoka, p. 135.

cut off, having exterminated. Esa oja samuchhicha might accordingly mean: 'having exterminated the strength of Siva, or, the royal strength'.

After cha there are traces of one or two letters ending in u, and room for still another akshara.

L. 3 begins with a distinct *li*. The second akshara is quite uncertain. What is seen at the same level as the surrounding letters is a distinct a. But then the akshara seems to be continued in a narrow curve and then down to the bottom of the line below, so that the whole makes the impression of a huge dh. Such an akshara, extending over two lines, would be unprecedented, and, moreover, dh has not elsewhere such a round head. I therefore read lia, and connect this with the ensuing letter which is certainly sa. Lia is either the end of a name or the whole name, and it would be tempting to think of the kshatrapa Liaka of the Patika copper-plate. But it is impossible to arrive at certainty.

Then comes a fairly distinct  $\delta u$ , further what looks like a shortened  $\delta ru$ , standing above a small hole, which may have existed when the inscription was executed. After  $\delta ru$  stands a curve, which may be the upper part of sha, though it is much narrower than in the unmistakable sha of l. 1. The next akshara looks like the  $\tilde{n}a$  of the late Jamālgarhī inscription of the year 359. Then follows a fairly distinct e, and I tentatively read the whole as  $liasa \, susrushañae$ , at . . . lia's order of obedience.

The two last aksharas of the line seem to be dada, but both are provided with a short line protruding backwards from about the middle, so that they look like dade. In the last one, however, this stroke is straighter and longer and has perhaps crossed the letter. With great hesitation I therefore read dedi. It should be remembered that forms such as deti, dei are old both in Pāli and in other Prākrits.

L. 4 opens with a break, which is continued into the first remaining akshara, so that the shape has become distorted. We must, however, evidently read a. The next letter is tha, and then follows a long vertical which runs up into the akshara standing above. There are, however, faint traces of a curve in line with the head of the preceding tha, and if we can assume that the upper part of the long vertical is due to a later damage to the stone, we may think of reading athana, which might correspond to Skr. ashtānām. It is quite conceivable that ashta only became adha in compounds such as adhashathi, and also in the Aśoka edicts and elswhere in Kharoshthī inscriptions atha is the common form

Then follows a fairly distinct ha, something which may be ya and some blurred lines, which may perhaps be nana. With great hesitation I read athana hayanana, Skr. ashtanam hayananam, of eight years. The remaining portion of the line is much defaced. The first akshara is illegible, the second looks like e, and the third is certainly sa.

L. 5. The first akshara is perhaps dha of the same shape as in the Patika plate. Then follows ma, with the right extremity rising higher than the left and crossed by an upward curve. The nearest approach is the rma of the Jaulia inscription 1. The next letter is evidently ra, and then follows an akshara which looks like tha, or rather va, and further an almost certain e. One might think of Dharmaravae as the name of a female person, but there cannot be the question of more than a mere guess. Then comes a distinct su, followed by two aksharas, which I cannot read, and two more, which seem to be yae.

L. 6 begins with ya veha arame, where ya is the relative pronoun, veha probably Skr. vā iha or va iha. Arāma in Pāli also means 'a monastery', &c., and some such meaning is perhaps intended. Then follows perhaps na and mi or min, whereafter there

is a big hole, followed by traces which may belong to a na. What follows may be varena.

- L. 7 opens with siati ya me and seems to end in yave. The intervening letters are illegible, though the second after me seems to be ha, perhaps the end of iha. Siati is the optative of the base as, to be, cf. siyati in the Taxila gold plate and the Niya documents.
- L. 8. The first two aksharas are *spasu*, which can be restored as *vispasu*, Skr. *visvāsu*. Then follow two letters which I cannot make out and then *su*. With every reserve I read *imasu*. The second, third, and fourth aksharas after *su* seem to be *yaraya*, the remaining letters cannot be read. We can only say that the second *ya* was apparently followed by *su*.
- L. 9. The first akshara is doubtful. It may be ki or ve. Then comes a damaged spot, followed by pa or, perhaps, pra, tha and vi, one illegible letter, an apparent sa, another illegible letter, siati, and, finally, ya.
- L. 10. The beginning is quite hopeless, about four aksharas being absolutely defaced. Then comes *prachhi*, which may be some form of *prachchhid* or of *prachh*, further an akshara which I cannot identify, a hole, three letters which look like *vehaa*, and, finally, some strokes which I cannot make out.

It will be seen that reading and interpretation are throughout uncertain, and I am unable to make out any connected sense. There seems to be some mention of donations in connexion with an ārāma, but the only certain information which we can gather is that the record is dated in the year 68, evidently of the old Saka era, and in this fact we can see an indication that the Mānsehrā country was included in the Saka empire.

### TEXT

- L. 1 adhashathia...
  - 2 eśa o[ja samuchhicha]. u . . .
  - 3 liasa śu[śrushaña]e ded[i]
  - 4 aṭha[na hayanana]..sa..
  - 5 [dha]rmaravae su . . . . [yae] . . .
  - 6 ya veha [arame] na . . varena
  - 7 siati ya me. ha.... ya [ve]
  - 8 [vi\*]spasu [ima]su . . [yarayasu]
  - 9 ... praṭhavi . [sa] . siati ya
  - 10 .... prachhi .... vehaa ...

### TRANSLATION

- L. I in sixty-eight . . .
  - 2 having destroyed the royal strength (?)
  - 3 at the order of obedience of . . . lia gives
  - 4 of eight years
  - 5 with Dharmarava
  - 6 what here in the ārāma
  - 7 may be, what by me . . . . or what
  - 8 in all these
  - 9 .. established (?) ... may be, what
  - 10 ... cut off (?) . . or here.



Scale 0-3

### XII. PLATE IV. 1: FATEHJANG STONE INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 68

Fatehjang is the easternmost tahsīl of the Attock District and of its head-quarters, a village which is also known under the Hindu name Chāsa.<sup>1</sup> It is now a station on the Rāwalpiṇḍī-Kohat railway.

Four or five miles south of Fatehjang is the village Mahjia, situated in 33° 29' N. and 72° 39' E. No. I, 3 of the Lahore Museum is a stone, bearing a Kharoshṭhī inscription in one line, which was for some time left unregistered as presented by Cunningham from Máji, i. e. Mahjia.<sup>2</sup>

According to a letter from Cunningham to Vincent Smith of June 17, 1892, the stone 'may have been inserted in a wall, but could not have been the base of a statue'. It was 5 ft. 9 in. long and from 3 ft. to 1 ft. 9 in. broad and weighed 12 maunds 7 seers (1,008 lb. avoirdupois or 457 kg.), but was cut down to 4 maunds 3 seers before it was sent to Lahore. It is now 5 ft. long and 4 in. high, and has been broken into two pieces. The inscribed portion is 3 ft. 1 in. long, and the size of individual letters varies from 1 to 2 in.

The inscription has been published by M. E. Senart,<sup>3</sup> and M. Boyer<sup>4</sup> has made a contribution to its interpretation.

The characters are Kharoshthī of the Saka variety. Kha has the backward bend which we already find in the Taxila copper-plate of the year 78, and the o-mātrā is suspended from the bottom of the head as in the Mount Banj inscription of the year 102. The lower horizontal of tha is slightly longer than the upper one, as in the Mānsehrā and Taxila copper-plate inscriptions. The head of na is slightly rounded, but not continued so far downwards to the right as in the old Swāt inscriptions and on the Patika plate. The letter occurs three times, always between vowels, and in the final word danamukho it has a bend of the vertical, so that we might think of reading na, but it seems to me that na is preferable. Mu has the same shape as on the Mathurā Lion Capital, and the same is the case with ya and sa, which latter, however, also reminds us of the Shahdaur inscription.

On the whole the alphabet, as maintained by Mr. R. D. Banerji, points to a fairly early age.

The opening portion containing the date does not admit of any doubt. It runs sam 20 20 20 4 4 Prothavatasa masasa divase shodase 10 4 1 1. We may note the t for intervocalic d in Prothavatasa. The tha of this word stands in the break between the two pieces into which the stone has been broken, but is perfectly clear. The e of divase is not visible in the estampage, but can be clearly seen in a photograph before me. The last figure of the date is longer than the preceding one, just as the corresponding 1 in the last date of the Takht-i-Bāhī inscription.

After the figures denoting the year there is a short dash, which evidently marks a stop. M. Senart explained the curious hook following after the final figure of the date as a similar dash. M. Boyer, on the other hand, read it as de, and this reading was accepted by Mr. Majumdar. What stands on the stone is, as will be seen, a sloping

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Cunningham, ASI, xiv, pp. 24 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Cunningham, Coins of Ancient India, p. 37; Vincent Smith, JASB, LXI, i, 1892, p. 56; LXII, i, 1893, pp. 84 f.; R. D. Banerji, Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, p. 46; J. P. Vogel, ASIAR, 1903-4, pp. 249, 251; Majumdar's List, no. 10.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> JA, VIII, xv, 1890, pp. 129 ff., with plate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> JA, x, iii, 1904, p. 465

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> JRAS, 1920, p. 205.

vertical, with a horizontal protruding from the middle towards the right. A somewhat similar de, without any horizontal or bend of the top, is found in the Peshāwar Museum inscription of the year 168, but here the e-stroke joins the sloping vertical near the bottom. Moreover the distance between the sign and the next letter is unusually small. In such circumstances I am inclined to accept M. Senart's explanation and to follow him in thinking that the stroke has become enlarged by a flaw in the stone.

The reading of the remaining aksharas is quite certain: vadhitirana sahayana danamukho. M. Senart thought that the natural division of the words would be vadhitiranasa hayana danamukho, but, failing to find any likely explanation of hayana, he finally treated Vadhitiranasahayana as a compound meaning 'of Vadhitirana and his companions'. M. Boyer explained Devadhitirana as a name meaning 'pious to the devas' and hayana as Skr. hayana, which occurs as a various reading instead of dayana, a covered carriage or palanquin, Amarakośa II, viii, 52. Mr. Majumdar, finally, translated 'gift of Sahaya, daughter (dhitira) of Deva'.

It seems to me that there cannot be any doubt about the explanation of sahayaṇa. It corresponds to Skr. sahāyānām, of the companions, of the associates. We have four other Kharoshṭhī records of the Saka period mentioning wells of, or presented by various associations of sahayas (sahāyas) or sahayaras (sahacharas), viz. the Muchai (sahayaraṇa kue Vashisugaṇa), Mārguz (kue sahaya . . . daraṇa), Kala Sang ( . . yaraṇa Pipalakhaaṇa kuo) and Peshāwar Museum, no. 20 (sahayara Travasakuraṇa daṇamukhe kue khaṇavide viharami) inscriptions. I am unable to make any suggestion about the nature of such associations or fraternities. The qualifying additions are throughout unclear. On the other hand, the parallelism of the other records makes me inclined to think that the Fatehjang stone was originally intended to commemorate the dedication of a well.

The word Vadhitirana or Devadhitirana must contain a nearer characterization of the association of sahāyas. Dhitirana might be the genitive plural of a Prākrit word corresponding to Skr. duhitar; cf. matapitarana in the Ārā inscription and the doubtful matudhitrana on the Saddo rock. In that case we should have to accept the reading devadhitirana, and we might think of some association of nuns designated 'the divine daughters', just as we find putra used about the members of certain groups or associations, e.g. in the Taxila silver scroll and Ārā inscriptions. As remarked above, however, the reading de is extremely uncertain. If we read Vadhitirana, the only explanation which I can offer is to take Vadhitira as representing a Skr. vādhitra formed from vadhitra, which according to Ujjvaladatta on the Unādisūtra iv. 172 means manmatha, love. We should then have to think of some corporation connected with the worship of the god of love or the study of the Kāmaśāstra. This explanation is, however, extremely uncertain, and we can scarcely do more than to state that we have to do with some kind of corporation, the explanation of its character being as uncertain as in the case of the other records mentioned above.

The date of the inscription must be referred to the old Saka era, and, according to Dr. van Wijk, it corresponds to July 18, 17 B.C.

I thus arrive at the following reading and interpretation:

### TEXT

Sam 20 20 20 4 4. Prothavatasa masasa divase shodase 10 4 1 1. Vadhitirana sahayana danamukho.

### TRANSLATION

Anno 68, on the sixteenth, 16., day of the month Praushthapada: gift of the Vadhitira companions.

## XIII. PLATE V. 1: TAXILA COPPER-PLATE INSCRIPTION OF PATIKA THE YEAR 78

In January, 1862, Mr. A. A. Roberts presented to the Royal Asiatic Society two copper-plates carrying Kharoshṭhī inscriptions. They had been brought to him by the villager Nūr, well known as treasure hunter in the mounds at ancient Taxila.

The exact find-place is not known. Nūr himself was later on examined by Cunningham,¹ but his statements differed at different times. He first said that he had found the plates in the mound numbered 40 in Cunningham's map, on the Lundī Nala, some 500 yards north of the Jandiāl temple. Afterwards he spoke of another mound, Cunningham's no. 41, a little farther to the west. His wife, on the other hand, 'referred the discovery to one of the ruined topes of Gāngu or Chiti, she could not remember which'. At Chiti Cunningham 'was informed by five different witnesses that no inscription of any kind had been discovered there, but they had heard that an inscribed copper-plate in two pieces had been found near Shah-Dherī.' Later on the Assistant Commissioner, Mr. Delmerick, was informed that the actual find-place was the village of Tofkiã in Sirsukh, the third city in Taxila. This statement is not, however, more likely to be correct than the others.²

The plates were examined by Edwin Norris, who read the words Taksila nagara and Śakyamuni and wrote some notes, which were read at one of the Society's meetings. At his suggestion the plates were sent to Professor Dowson, who saw that they belonged together and formed one single inscription.

In July, 1862, E. Thomas gave some information about the two scholars' results,<sup>3</sup> and in December he sent a letter to the Asiatic Society of Bengal <sup>4</sup> and a reproduction of the inscription, 'with a view to an independent translation being made, prior to the receipt of Professor Dowson's reading of the text'.

The result were some remarks by Cunningham,<sup>6</sup> and about the same time Dowson published his reading in a paper read to the Royal Asiatic Society, February 16, 1863,<sup>6</sup> and afterwards <sup>7</sup> he added some remarks, which also took notice of Cunningham's paper.

A new note was published by Cunningham, with a reproduction of the plate, in 1871,8 and, in 1894, Professor Rapson edited a new and much improved rendering by Bhagvanlal Indrajī.9

Then Professor Bühler contributed two short notes to the Academy<sup>10</sup> and republished<sup>11</sup> the inscription with a new plate, reproduced from a photograph taken by Mr. Griggs for Dr. Fleet.<sup>12</sup>

According to Bühler, the plate 'measures fourteen inches by three and weighs 3½ ounces. It is broken into three pieces, two large ones, right and left, and a small one fitting in between them. Some portions of the central piece, which is half eaten by verdigris, have been lost. Besides, the left hand upper and lower corners of the plate are broken off,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See ASI, ii, pp. 132 ff.; v, p. 67.

<sup>2</sup> Cf. Marshall, ASIAR, 1915–16, p. 21.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> JRAS, xx, 1863, p. 108. <sup>4</sup> JASB, xxxi, 1862, pp. 532 ff., with plate.

JASB, xxxii, 1863, pp. 139 ff.
 JRAS, xx, 1863, pp. 221 ff., with plate 111, fig. 1.
 JASB, xxxii, 1863, pp. 421 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> ASI, ii, pp. 132 ff., and plate LIX, no. 1.
<sup>9</sup> JASR, 1894, pp. 551 ff.
<sup>10</sup> 1896, no. 1247, p. 266; no. 1252, p. 368, republished WZKM, x, p. 173.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Ep. Ind., iv, pp. 54 ff., with plate.

<sup>12</sup> Cf. Majumdar's List, no. 69.

as well as a small bit of the lower portion of the large right-hand piece'. The remaining portions are reproduced in the accompanying plate from new photographs placed at my disposal by the Royal Asiatic Society at the request of the India Office.

The inscription consists of five lines. The letters consist of small dots, punched into the plate, as in some other Kharoshthī inscriptions. The size of individual letters varies from half an inch on the average in ll. 1-4, to about one third of that size in l. 5. L. 5 does not begin at the right-hand corner, but in the interval between the 9th and 10th aksharas of l. 4. In the space thus left open are seen the dots of a series of letters engraved on the reverse and containing an endorsement. It is evident from this arrangement that l. 5 was only engraved after ll. 1-4 and the endorsement had been executed. It therefore seems as if 1. 5, which mentions the navakamika, has been subsequently added. A similar state of things is met with in the Manikiala stone inscription, where the name of the navakarmiga is inserted transversely in the right-hand corner. In both cases the navakarmika has taken care that his name should be associated with the meritorious deed recorded in the inscription.

The alphabet is Kharoshthī of the old Saka type. Ka, pa, bha, la and sa have straight lines and distinct corners as on old coins, and are not rounded as in later records. Na has the long upper curvature of the Asoka inscriptions and other old records. Ba has the rounded shape and the deep indenture of older records. The m of mu has the same shape as in the Asoka inscriptions. The same is the case with the broad, angular ya. In sa the upward continuation of the lower vertical is turned to the left, as sometimes in the Asoka inscriptions, and almost reaches the head. Ante-consonantic r has the older shape of a curved cross-bar without the loop. The anusvāra is of frequent occurrence, in pani, bani, mani, yani, rani, sani, hani.

With regard to phonetics, we may note that na and na are distinguished as in Sanskrit, if we except the writing sakamunisa, which seems to show that the tendency to cerebralize an intervocalic n, which has become the rule in the Kharoshthī Dhammapada, was a feature of the spoken vernacular. It is also of interest that we find apratithavita with th, but [pra\*]tithaveti with th.

The reading of the record is, generally speaking, certain.

L. 1. The first two words are certainly samvatsaraye athasatatimae. The two first aksharas are apparently so much corroded that they are hardly visible. Then follow the numerical figures 20 20 20 10 4 4, i.e. 78, and maharayasa mahamtasa Mogasa, of the mahārāja, the great Moga.

Of the ensuing word, which Dowson was able to read as Panemasa, the second akshara is now almost invisible. The Greek month Panemos broadly corresponds to the Indian Ashādha. Then follow masasa divase panichame, the figures 4 and 1, i. e. 5, and etaye purvaye, where only the akshara pu is slightly defaced.

The last word of l. 1 was read kshaharasa by Dowson, and Bühler thinks that this reading is perhaps right, though he also admits the possibility of reading kshaharatasa, as done by Bhagvānlāl Indrājī. In the photographs before me the aksharas kshaha are quite distinct, ra is defaced, but legible, and the fourth akshara is almost certainly ta. Moreover, the bottom of a fifth akshara, viz. sa, is clearly visible, the head having disappeared in the break at the end of the line. Kshaharatasa cannot be anything else than the genitive of the well-known designation kshaharāta, which is also used by the oldest of the Western Kshatrapas.

L. 2. Though the first two aksharas are now much defaced, the reading of the three first words is absolutely certain, viz. chukhsasa cha kshatrapasa. The designations kshaharatasa chukhsasa cha kshatrapasa remind us of kshaharatasa kshatrapasa on the coins of the Western kshatrapa Bhūmaka and of rāno kshaharātasa kshatrapasa in the Nāsik inscriptions of Nahapāna. The only difference is that in our inscription we find the addition chukhsasa cha between kshaharatasa and kshatrapasa. Here chikhsa might be parallel with kshaharata, and those who read kshaharasa at the end of l. 1 have all treated kshaharasa and chukhsasa as parallel genitives, governed by kshatrapasa, and translated 'of the kshatrapa of Kshahara and Chukhsa'. Cunningham 1 tried to identify Kshahara and Chukhsa with the present Sir-Sukh, where he thought that the copper-plate had been found. In the first place, however, the plate does not seem to hail from Sir-Sukh, and, in the second, it is difficult to see how Kshahara-Chukhsa could phonetically become Sir-Sukh. Bühler further objects that the locality where the plate was deposited is called Kshema in the inscription itself. And, finally, the reading kshaharasa cannot, as we have seen, be maintained. If kshaharatasa and chukhsasa are parallel forms, we must explain chukhsa as having a similar meaning as kshaharata. The Nāsik inscription of the 19th year of Siri-Pulumāyi mentions the Khakharātavasa, the Kshaharāta race, and it is probable that the Kshaharātas were a Saka family or clan, but the word might also denote a charge or dignity. Chukhsa could hardly have any such meaning. If kshaharāta is the name of a family, the same person would be assigned to two or, as we shall see, even three families, and, if it is a title, we should have to state the use of three titles, kshaharāta, chukhsa, and kshatrapa, and the position of the intervening cha would be unusual. I therefore think that we must explain chukhsasa as a genitive dependent on kshatrapasa, the more so because the title Chukhsasa kshatrapasa is also used in another Taxila inscription of the year 191, and there chukhsa can hardly be anything else than the name of the locality over which the kshatrapa held sway.

Bühler thought it possible to read chuskha and drew attention to the curious Sanskrit choska, which according to the Trikāṇḍaśesha means 'a horse from the districts on the Indus'. Choska might perhaps, like saindhava, a horse from Sindh, be a purely territorial name, denoting some particular district on the Indus, and a variant of chukhsa or chuskha. If that were so, it would follow that the kshatrapa in question governed the Eastern Panjāb as far as the Indus.

Sir Aurel Stein,<sup>3</sup> on the other hand, identified *Chukhsa* with the present Chach or Chachh, an alluvial plain in the north of the District and tahsīl of Attock, lying between 33° 53′ and 33° 59′ N. and 72° 22′ and 72° 44′ E., i.e. in the immediate neighbourhood of ancient Taxila.

It seems to me that this latter explanation is the most likely one, though there are some phonetical difficulties with regard to the vowel. I therefore read kshaharalasa Chukhsasa cha kshatrapasa, of the Kshaharāta and kshatrapa of Chukhsa.

Then follows a series of parenthetical sentences: Liako Kusuluko nama, tasa putro Pati[ko] Takhaśilaye nagare utarena prachu deso Kshema nama, Liaka Kusuluka by name, his son Patika. In the town of Takshaśilā, to the north, the eastern region, Kshema by name.

The reading is absolutely certain. Only the ko of Patiko, after which there is room enough for one or two aksharas, so that we might think of reading Patiko nama, has almost entirely disappeared with the portion of the plate which has been broken off in this place.

The name of the Kshaharata, the kshatrapa of Chukhsa, was accordingly Liaka Kusuluka. There cannot be any doubt about the identity of this kshatrapa with the ruler

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASI, ii, p. 134\*; v, pp. 67 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Ind. Ant., xxv, 1896, pp. 174 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Ep. Ind., viii, p. 60.

<sup>4</sup> Cf. Lüders, JRAS, 1906, p. 650.

who strikes coins in direct imitation of one of the issues of Eucratides and bearing the legend AIAKO KOZOTAO,1 where the Greek rendering shows that the s was pronounced with voice and that the second u was long. As stated in the Historical Introduction, Liaka Kusuluka was evidently a Saka ruler, and we can infer from our inscription that he held sway in and near Taxila, while Moga was the Saka suzerain.

After Liaka the inscription mentions his son Patika, without any title. We shall see below, under l. 4, that he may have held a subordinate charge, and we know from the Mathurā Lion Capital that later on he became mahākshatrapa, probably in Taxila. For he is evidently identical with the mahakshatrava Kusulua Patika mentioned in that record.

The last parenthetical sentence runs Takhasilaye nagare utarena prachu deso Kshema Here Takhasila is hardly the genuine dialect form. In other inscriptions we find Takshasila which seems to be more in accordance with the phonetical system of the dialect. Takhasilaye can be the oblique form of Takhasilā or, like Taksha[s\*]ilaami in a later Taxila inscription, the locative of a Takhasilaya, Skr. Tākshasilaka. As pointed out by Bühler, we should expect Takhasilae nagarasa utarena or utarena with the accusative. The construction is, however, not strictly grammatical. The various words are put side by side, without the proper nexus: in the town of Takshaśilā, to the north, the eastern region, Kshema by name, or, Kshema is its name. The form prachu, as compared with deso, is in accordance with the practice in the Kharoshthī Dhammapada.

The locality called Kshema cannot be identified. Since Sirkap was the chief settlement of Taxila in the Saka period,2 we must look for it to the north-east of that place.

A new sentence begins with the last word of l. 2, which is atra.

L. 3 begins with se, which Bühler was certainly right in restoring as dese. Dowson took it to be the beginning of a word and read sepatiko, connecting it with the ensuing aksharas, and M. Senart thought 3 that the actual reading might be sarirakosa, a reliquary.

Then follows Patiko apratithavita bhagavata Śakamunisa śariram tithaveti, i.e., as seen by Dowson, pratithaveti, sampharamam cha. The e of ve in tithaveti and the two first aksharas of saingharamain are now hardly visible.

The end of the line is clear: sarvabudhana puyae matapitaram puyayamta. e of puyae has been added as a correction above the line. Bühler read puyaya[into], but I cannot see the final o-matra and follow M. Senart in reading a, though a evidently stands for o.

L. 4. The two first aksharas are indistinct, but visible. The text runs: kshatrapasa saputradarasa ayubalavardhie. There can only be some doubt about the last akshara, which looks more like a. The e-stroke seems, however, to be represented by a single dot, which runs into the dots representing the preceding akshara.

Then follows bhratara sarva cha, after which there is a small hole in the plate so that cha is not quite complete.

The next word is not distinctly legible. Dowson read satiga. a.. dhavasa, Bhagvānlāl natigaadhavasa, and Bühler restored natigabamdhavasa, but remarked that nati is somewhat indistinct and that only the left side of the top of ga remains. I am much in doubt about the initial na. The old plate published by E. Thomas seems to show a vertical with a curving line to the left and a top-stroke, and it is possible that we should read  $\tilde{n}a$ , as in the corresponding word in the Taxila silver-scroll. The ensuing words are certainly cha puyayamto.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Rapson, WK, p. cii.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Marshall, A guide to Taxila, 2nd edition, Calcutta, 1921, pp. 67 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> JA, VIII, xv, 1890, p. 130<sup>1</sup>.

<sup>4</sup> l. c., p. 121.

The construction is irregular, the participle puyayamlo governing first the accusatives bhratara sarva, which I follow Bühler in explaining as corresponding to Skr. bhratrīn sarvān, and then the genitive. Mr. Pargiter¹ proposes to explain bhratara as a genitive and to read 'sa-putra-darasa (ayu-bala-vardhie) bhratara sarva-(cha)-natiga-[bain]dhavasa cha, the first cha being inserted parenthetically ... with reference to sarva-natiga, and the second cha being in its correct place grammatically but referring specially to (sarva)-[bain]dhava. These cha's are used more with regard to the sense than strict grammar'. It seems to me that such a construction could not possibly be intelligible to anybody, without a commentary.

Bühler explains the irregularity by assuming 'that in the Gandhāra dialect the verb puyayati could take either the accusative or the genitive, like the Sanskrit namati'. We have not, however, any reason for assuming that such was the case, and it seems more likely that the genitive is a mistake owing to confusion with the parallel construction which we find in sarvabudhana puyac. It would also be possible to explain -baindhavasacha as representing a Skr. bāndhavasatya, in which case there would not be any grammatical irregularity. But we have no examples of an idiom such as satyain pūjayitum.

With puyayanto the context is at an end. The remaining portion of l. 4 contains a separate statement. The reading is perfectly certain: mahadanapati Palikasa jaiwañac. There is room for one or two aksharas in the missing corner, but we cannot say whether anything is missing. Bühler explained jativañae as representing Skr. jayo varnyate and connected this with 1. 5, which he read: Rohinimitrena ya ima[hi] samgharame navakamika, translating the whole: 'the victory of the great gift-lord Patika is described by Rohinimitra, who is the overseer of the works in this monastery'. The jaii, he says, 'refers to the gift, by which Patika had become a danavira'. Lüders' doubts 'very much the correctness of the reading jail vañae. 'To say nothing of the supposed elision of t in vañae, which is by no means likely, I cannot bring myself to believe that jayo varnyate iterally "the victory is described", could ever mean "the record of the great gift was knun up". I would rather,' he says, 'suggest to read jaiivaraye or some other equivalent of Skr. yauvarājye instead of jaŭ vañae. "During the time when the great gift-lord Patika was heir apparent" would be quite unobjectionable.' Lüders has further 3 compared the title mahādānapati with the corresponding Saka word horamurta in the Māṇikiāla inscription, horamurndaka in certain Mathurā inscriptions, and the short form horaka on the Mathura Lion Capital, and pointed out that these 'gift-lords' were evidently persons of consequence.

While agreeing with Lüders in his criticism of Bühler, I cannot accept his explanation. Sanskrit y never becomes j in the north-western dialect, and the reading jailvañae is beyond doubt. It seems most natural to see a word corresponding to Skr. ajñayā in the last part of jailvañae, and the remaining jailva must then qualify the ājñā, the order, or the person issuing the order, i.e. Patika, as a title. The latter alternative seems to me to be the most likely one. In that case we may compare the well-known title yavuga, yaila, ¿aoos, i.e. zaila, zavuga, used about the first Kushāṇa ruler, Kujūla Kadphises. There is nothing to prevent us from assuming that this was an old Saka title, which had been current in the old Tokharian country, and that it had also been used by the old Saka chiefs in India. If Patika, the son of the kshatrapa, bore this title at the time of the inscription, we must infer that the position as jailva was inferior to that of a kshatrapa.

I have already mentioned that the words written on the reverse were engraved immediately after 1. 4 and before 5. They run Patikasa kshatrapa Liaka. Dowson,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Ep. Ind., xi, p. 2156.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JRAS, 1909, pp. 664 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> SBAW, 1912, pp. 420 ff.

who read palipasa instead of Palikasa, explained them as an endorsement meaning 'Liako, Satrap of the lord of lords'. Bhagvanlal described them as the signature of Patika, with the addition of his father's name. Bühler suggested the translation 'of Patika, the satrap Liaka', meaning 'Patika's father, the satrap Liaka', and added: 'As Patika receives no official title whatsoever, he must as yet have been a private individual and as such unable to sanction or endorse an official document.' A comparison of the Kharoshthī documents from Eastern Turkestan, where we frequently find the genitive of a name, with or without the addition dadavo, to be given to, as an address on the cover, shows that we must translate: 'to Patika, the kshatrapa Liaka', and conclude that the deed was executed at Patika's request in Liaka's office and sent thence to Patika. such circumstances it becomes more intelligible why the words mahadanapati Patikasa jaiivañae are added at the end of the deed. They are a kind of labelling, in order to secure dispatch to the proper person.

L. 5 has, as already remarked, been added after the words on the reverse had been engraved. As stated above, Bühler connected them with the last word of l. 4. But we have already seen that his explanation of that word cannot be upheld. Moreover, as shown by Lüders,1 the navakarmika does not seem to have had anything to do with the drawing up of the record. He had to superintend the work, when a layman wanted to erect a building for the use of the order. Such was evidently also the case with Rohinimitra, and l. 5 must probably be taken together with the words in l. 3, which record the establishing of the relics and the sainghārāma. It is of course possible that it had originally been intended to insert the name of the navakarmika in the body of the inscription. As stated above, however, we have an analogous case in the Māṇikiāla stone inscription, and it seems probable that I. 5 has been added by Rohinimitra himself, or at his request, after the plate had been forwarded from Liaka's office.<sup>2</sup> That it is a later addition is evident not only from the way in which it has been engraved, after the dots of the endorsement, but also from the smaller size of the aksharas, and from the form navakamika, where the r before m has been omitted and k in the suffix ka has not been changed to g or y, or dropped as in samvatsaraye, athasatatimae, ñatiga. In the record itself ka in such position is only found in foreign names such as Liaka and Patika.

The reading of l. 5 is certain, with the exception of the akshara which Bühler read hi in imahi. It seems to me that we must read mi or perhaps mri, i.e. the same compound letter, which apparently denotes mhi in later inscriptions such as the record on the Also si is perhaps possible. With every reserve I therefore read imami.

The question of the date has been dealt with in the Introduction, where it has been stated that it probably corresponds to some day in June of the year 6 B. C.

I now give my reading and translation.

### TEXT

- L. 1 [samva]tsaraye athasatatimae 20 20 20 10 4 4 maharayasa mahamtasa Mogasa Pa[ne]masa masasa divase pamchame 4 1 etaye purvaye kshaha[ra]ta[sa]
  - [Chukhsa]sa cha kshatrapasa Liako Kusuluko nama tasa [pu]tro Pati[ko] Takhaśilaye nagare utarena prachu deso Kshema nama atra
  - 3 [de\*|se Patiko apratithavita bhagavata Sakamunisa sariram [pra\*]tithaveti [sanigha]ramam cha sarvabudhana puyae matapitaram puyayamt[o\*]
  - 4 [kshatra]pasa saputradarasa ayubalavardhi[e] bhratara sarva cha [ñatigabamdha]vasa cha puyayamto mahadanapati Patikasa jauvañae

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JRAS, 1909, pp. 664 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Konow, SBAW, 1916, p. 794<sup>1</sup>.



Second half



2. MUCHAI. YEAR 8



icale o.3

5 Rohinimitrena ya ima[mi] samgharame navakamika

Reverse: Patikasa kshatrapa Liaka.

### TRANSLATION

In the seventy-eighth, 78., year (during the reign) of the Great King the Great Moga, on the fifth, 5., day of the month Panemos, on this first (tithi), of the Kshaharāta and kshatrapa of Chukhsa—Liaka Kusuluka by name—his son Patika—in the town of Takshaśilā, to the north, the eastern region, Kshema by name—in this place Patika establishes a (formerly) not established relic of the Lord Śākyamuni and a saṃghārāma (through Rohiṇimitra who (is) the overseer of work in this saṃghārāma, l. 5), for the worship of all Buddhas, worshipping his mother and father, for the increase of the life and power of the kshatrapa, together with his son and wife, worshipping all his brothers and his blood-relations and kinsmen.

At the jativa-order of the great gift-lord Patika.

To Patika the kshatrapa Liaka.

### XIV. PLATE V. 2: MUCHAI INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 81.

No. I. 46 of the Lahore Museum is a slab of sandstone, measuring 3 ft. 11½ in. x 1 ft. 1⅓ in., and bearing a Kharoshṭhī inscription. According to Sir Aurel Stein's catalogue of inscriptions in the Lahore Museum, quoted by Mr. R. D. Banerji,¹ it was found in a hujra or cell in Muchai in Yusufzai, in 72° 20′ E. and 34° 21′ N., just to the north of Mt. Karamar, south-east of Rustam, and north-west of Naogram. It is stated to have been referred to in the Report of the Explorations of the 10th Sappers under Captain Maxwell in 1882.

The inscription, which is no. 43 in Majumdar's List, was discussed and edited by Mr. Banerji,<sup>2</sup> and the reading was corrected by Professor Lüders.<sup>3</sup>

The inscription covers a surface 2 ft.  $\times$  9 in., and consists of two lines, the average size of individual letters being 2-3 inches.

The characters belong to about the same period as those of the Patika plate. We may note the square ka, the sloping ti, the broad angular ya, the square sa, and the distinct straight prolongation of the lower vertical of sa, which almost touches the head. I fail to understand how Mr. Banerji could assign our inscription to the Kushāṇa period and the later Śaka era.

L. I is perfectly certain, viz. vashe ekasitimaye 20 20 20 1, followed by two lines crossing each other, but evidently only meant to mark a stop, in a similar way as in the Fatehjang inscription. It is of interest that the word varsha, which regularly becomes vasha in the dialect, is used in some records dated in the older Saka era, viz. in the Takht-i-Bāhī, Kāldarra, Skārah Dherī, and probably the Mārguz epigraphs, but never in such as belong to the Kanishka era.

L. 2 was read sahayatena kae Vashisugena by Mr. Banerji. There cannot, however, be any doubt that Lüders was right in reading sahayarana kue vashisugana. Sahayara represents Sanskrit sahachara, companion, friend, associate. I am unable to say what kind of association the vashisugas formed. Vashi probably stands for varshi and suga may represent sunga or perhaps even suka. Kue, finally, is the nominative of the word corresponding to Skr. kūpa, a well.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, p. 64.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> l. c., pp. 46, 64, with plate II, fig. 1.

<sup>3</sup> JRAS, 1909, p. 6642.

With regard to the date of the Muchai record, it will be seen in the Introduction that it probably corresponds to the year 4-3 B. C.

### TEXT

- L. 1 vashe ekaśitimaye 20 20 20 1 +
  - 2 sahayarana kue vashiśugana.

### TRANSLATION

In the eighty-first, 81., year. Well of the Vashiśuga companions.

### XV. PLATES VI-IX: THE MATHURA LION CAPITAL

In 1869 l'andit Bhagvānlāl Indrājī found a red sandstone capital embedded in the steps of an altar devoted to Śītalā, on a site belonging to some low-caste Hindus at Mathurā. An account of the discovery is given in the Pandit's paper on The Northern Kshatrapas.<sup>1</sup> On the l'andit's death in 1888 the capital was bequeathed to the British Museum, where it is now exhibited.

The capital is 1 ft. 7 in. high and 2 ft. 8 in. wide. It has been described by the late Professor Bühler<sup>2</sup> as follows: 'It consists of two lions standing closely joined together, back to back, on a pedestal, a square block of red sandstone forming an oblong 10 in square at the top and 11 in square at the base, and 1 ft. 8 in in height. Above, at the point of the junction of the two backs, there is a square flattened space with a hole in the middle, and there is also a corresponding hole at the bottom. It is thus evident that the sculpture belonged to the upper portion of some pillar, but did not stand quite at the top. And various representations on the slabs from the Amaravatī Stūpa leave no doubt as to the exact position of the two lions and as to the nature of the object which they carried. For example . . . we have a pillar, surmounted by an architrave on which two lions couchant are placed back to back, and above them rises anenormous Dharmachakra . . . The arrangement seems to have been a very common one, the lions as supporters of the Dharmachakra being symbols of the Buddha, who is often called the lion of the Sākya race. The place where the pillar was set up seems to have been, according to the inscription H, the Guhavihāra, apparently one of the Buddhist monasteries at Mathura, with which town the sculpture is also connected by the name of the Satrap Sudasa or Sodasa. If the exact find-spot of the Lion Capital were known, it would be possible to identify the site of the Guhavihāra, which is not mentioned by the Chinese pilgrims.' 19188.

Professor Thomas 3 states that 'the state of the stone has been somewhat impaired by time and accident. In some cases, e.g. in the loss of the horn-like projections of the two heads, this has involved no curtailment of the text. The chippings of the two bottom corners have been, no doubt, equally harmless. But the front, which would be the most exposed portion of the stone, has in part so peeled away as to render some characters illegible'.

The bodies of the two lions and the top, back, and bottom of the block carry inscriptions in Kharoshthī letters. These inscriptions were arranged and read by Bhagvānlāl, whose interpretation was published by Bühler, who carefully compared his

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Published by E. J. Rapson, JRAS, 1894, pp. 541 ff.; cf. also Cunningham, 'Coffe of the Sakas', Numismatic Chronicle, 3. series, x, p. 123; Academy, 28 April, 1891, p. 397.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JRAS, 1894, p. 526.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Ep. Ind., ix, pp. 135 ff.

<sup>4</sup> l. c., pp. 525 ff.

readings with the original 'and afterwards again with an excellent paper impression, presented . . . by Dr. James Burgess in 1889'.

A new edition, with plates, prepared from photographs of Cunningham, was published by Professor F. W. Thomas.¹ Certain passages have been mentioned and discussed by Fleet,² A. Barth,³ R. D. Banerji,⁴ F. W. Thomas,⁵ V. Smith,⁶ II. Lüders,² L. Barnett,⁶ J. H. Marshall,⁰ and E. Rapson,¹⁰ and a new reading of the whole was suggested by myself.¹¹

I now edit the inscriptions from an excellent plaster-of-Paris cast, which the India Office has been good enough to place at my disposal, and which has been photographed by Mr. Væring of Oslo for reproduction in the accompanying plates.

It has been usual to distinguish a series of different records on the capital, and to mark each of them by a capital letter. It would not serve any useful purpose to change this designation, though I feel convinced that we cannot accept the arrangement of the various parts of the record or records in the alphabetical succession indicated by the capitals. Their distribution over the capital will be apparent from the sketch in plate vi, which has been drawn from the cast by Mrs. Hütten, of the Ethnographic Museum, Oslo.

M. Barth was of opinion <sup>12</sup> that 'a considerable number of these inscriptions have nothing to do with the erection of the pillar, that they are not contemporaneous with the first consecration, and that they were engraved, not before the capital was put into place, but on various occasions after its fall'. As pointed out by Professor Thomas in his edition, however, the thoroughgoing uniformity of the characters and the similarity of the subject-matter of the records 'forbids any supposition of additions during the subsequent history of the stone'. Whether we assume that we have before us a series of different records, or agree with Lüders <sup>13</sup> that the whole is one single inscription, recording the donation of the queen of Rajula and some minor donations made on the same occasion by her relatives, there can hardly be any doubt that the whole has been executed at the same time.

On the other hand, it is evident from the placing and arrangement of the inscriptions that they were not throughout meant to be legible or to be read. To quote M. Barth, 'most, if not all of them were... to be necessarily illegible when seen from the foot of the pillar, and two, A' and N, cut close to the two mortices, were even entirely hidden when the capital was once put into its place and surmounted by its appendage... The fact that those commemorations should have been thus engraved so as never to be read would, in any case, be no objection... nothing is more common with that sort of documents... These are pious works which indeed admit of a certain amount of publicity, but a publicity intended especially for the next world'.

The size of individual letters shows considerable variations. Professor Thomas distinguishes five groups:

1. The inscriptions B, E, F, I, J, M, on the front and back of the stone, with characters about  $2-2\frac{1}{2}$  in. in height;

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<sup>1</sup> Ep. Ind., ix, pp. 135 ff.
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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JRAS, 1904, pp. 703 ff.; 1905, pp. 154 ff.; 1907, p. 1013; 1913, pp. 1001, 1009.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Comptes Rendus des Séances de l'Académie des Inscriptions et Belles Lettres, 1907, pp. 384 ff.; Œuvres, v, pp. 280 ff., translated Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, pp. 245 ff.

<sup>4</sup> Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, pp. 49, 55.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> JRAS, 1906, pp. 212 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> ZMG, lxi, 1907, pp. 404 ff.

<sup>7</sup> SBAW, 1913, pp. 415 ff.

<sup>8</sup> JRAS, 1913, p. 945.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> JRAS, 1914, p. 985.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> Ancient India, 1914, p. 158, with plates pp. 150 and 158.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> SBAW, 1916, pp. 796 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> l. c., p. 388 = 247.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> l.c., p. 418.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> l. c., pp. 386 f. = 246.

- 2. G, N, P, E" on the back and under surface of the stone, circa 12-2 in.;
- 3. A (on the unpolished top and back of the stone), K, L (on the breast of the left lion), O, Q, R (underneath), J' (front, on the leg of the left lion), circa  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in.;
  - 4. C, D, E' (on the back of the right lion), circa 1 in.
- 5. II, II', slightly incised in small characters, of about \(^3\) in., on the front. Similar small letters are also found in inscriptions I and J, and we shall have to discuss them in connexion with the records themselves.

Within one and 'the same inscription the characters generally maintain a fair average size, but sometimes they become a little cramped by limitations of space'. Professor Thomas is of opinion 'that the inscriptions in larger characters, 1, 2, and 3, were carved first, and those of a smaller size were afterwards crammed in wherever space offered.'

The characters are Kharoshṭhī of a comparatively old type. Bühler described them as closely agreeing with those of the Shāhbāzgaṭhī and Mānsehrā versions of the Aśoka edicts, and Professor Thomas as 'intermediate between the Aśoka forms and the cursive deviations of the Dhammapada manuscript and those discovered by Dr. Stein, to which approximate the vase scratchings from Māṇikiāla and other places and the inscription of Sue-Vihār'.

The shape of individual letters is not quite uniform, some of them having occasionally a cursive form, which fact may point to a comparatively extensive use of the Kharoshṭhī script by the people who set up the capital, leading to the introduction of cursive forms side by side with the old ones. I may mention a few details.

U has the cursive loop-shape, which we have already found in the Shahdaur inscription, but in I I the loop is turned backwards, after the vertical has been bent forwards, and in I 4 we seem to have the Aśoka shape, without the loop and only with the bend, which we have also found in the Swāt vase of Theüdora.

Kha is without the backward bend of the top, as in the Asoka inscriptions.

Cha has the older form with the downward curve of the lower part. The head of chha is angular, and there is almost no interval between the upper and lower parts.

Mu once, in A 13, has the old Asokan shape, with the u-matra added to an ordinary ma. In A 3, 12, and E' we find the usual later shape.

Ya is usually broad and angular, but in P 2, N 1 the top has become slightly broadened.

Sa is usually cursive, without the upward prolongation of the lower vertical. Where the latter occurs, as in P 2, it is bent forward as in the Patika plate.

Anteconsonantic r has the older shape, without the loop, in rda (Q), rna (I 1), rva (F 2, J 1, P 1).

On the whole the palaeography of the inscriptions points to a time not much later than that of the Patika plate.

Professor Thomas has drawn attention to the numerous cases where a consonant is provided with a bottom hook or curve similar to the usual subscript ra. The state of things is as follows.

Kr is used for every intervocalic k and g in Indian words, and also in the name Sakastana; thus bhakravatro A 12, saman[u]motrakra E", nakraraasa F 1, nakrarakrasa N 1, Sakrastanasa P 1. Intervocalic k without the r-stroke only occurs in un-Indian names and words such as Nada Diakasa A 5, horaka A 9, Muki A 13, &c. It seems probable that Professor Thomas is right in assuming that kr is used to represent a guttural fricative, 'analogous to the Persian  $\dot{\epsilon}$ ; more especially as in the name of Seistän (Pahlavī Saghastān) this sound no doubt prevailed at the time'.

Gra only occurs where the corresponding Sanskrit word has gra, viz. in agra-A 2, pagrana N 2, parigrahe A 16, J 3. There is no reason for assuming another value of gra than the usual Sanskrit one, the less so because the subscript ra here has the curved shape and not the sharp angle, which we find where gr seems to represent a guttural fricative, as e.g. in the Wardak inscription.

dhra occurs in the word pradhravi À 10, padhravi M 2, where it only seems to mark the strong cerebral pronunciation.

The subscript r is especially frequent after t. Professor Thomas remarks that a ta, without the r-hook, only occurs in quite few cases, viz. in  $Takshilasa \ R \ 1$ , where it is initial, in  $ateurena \ A \ 9$ , where it is preceded by a nasal, in  $[a]bhusavi[ta] \ A \ 13$ ,  $karita \ J \ 2 \ E''$ ,  $ayimita \ K \ L \ 3$ , and in the foreign name  $Patika \ G \ 1$ . Everywhere else ta is provided with a curved addition at the bottom. Professor Thomas compares the sign which was read tta by Bühler  $^1$  in the Asoka inscriptions. But that sign differs in showing an upward continuation of the lower curve and is now commonly read tva.

In most cases the sign in question consists of an ordinary ta with a small bottom curve towards the right; thus dhitre or dhitra A 3, matra A 5, pratrefre A 10, fro A 3, pratrifhavitro A 11, chatrudifrasa A 14, bhakravatro A 12, sarvastivatra A 16, A 13, A 16, A 17, saman[u]motrakra A 16, A 19, saman[u]motrakra A 10, right itro A 11, will be seen that the compound represents A 11, single intervocalie A 12, nivatritro, chatru-, bhakravatro, nivatritro, navitrave) or A 11, saman[u]motrakra, it will be seen that the compound represents A 12, sarvastivatra, saman[u]motrakra, bhakravatro, nivatritro, navitrave) or A (pratrefra, sarvastivatra, saman[u]motrakra, Budhatrevasa, ntraena) in the corresponding Sanskrit words. The state of things is, accordingly, exactly parallel to what we found with A 18, and some presumption is raised in favour of the assumption that intervocalie A 18, and of that record would then point to a voiced fricative. Moreover, we should be inclined to explain the stray instances of intervocalie A mentioned above as representing a doubled or compound A.

The two forms dhitra A 3 and matra A 5 can a priori be explained in two ways, either as instrumentals, corresponding to Skr. duhitra, mātrā, respectively, or as nominatives, i. e. the apparent tra may be an old intervocalic ta or an old tra. As to matra, it should be noted that this word also occurs A 6, where, however, the akshara tra is different, showing a short stroke sloping forwards from the lower curve. The same shape also occurs in bhratra A 8, perhaps in dhitra A 8, and in pitramahi A 7. Both the second matra and bhratra are certainly instrumentals, and it seems natural to infer that the modified compound, with the short stroke, actually stands for tra, while the form without the stroke represents a dental fricative, derived from an uncompound intervocalic t. Pitramahi A 7 must then be a mistake.

It is characteristic that the r-mātrā in these last instances is not a curve but a more angular hook, i. e. we have the same distinction as in the case of gra in the Wardak inscription, where, however, the angular form seems to mark the guttural fricative and the curve the old gra. Also in putra B 2 we have an angular r-stroke, and here there are two short strokes in front of the akshara. Also here it is probable that tr and not a fricative is intended.

In the word kshatrava we find a third shape, viz. the curve form mentioned above, with a small dot in front, cf. B 1, 3, M 1, Q 2. In G 1, 2 the dot is missing, and in  $\Lambda$  1 the akshara has an exceptional shape, consisting of the same tra as in matra  $\Lambda$  6, but with verticals running down from the upper and lower curve respectively and a short

vertical, resembling an e-mātrā, rising above the horizontal. A somewhat similar akshara is found in 1. 3 of the Zeda inscription. It is tempting to see in these varying renderings an attempt at writing the Iranian compound of a voiceless dental fricative, corresponding to English th, and r.

The remaining r-compounds are less numerous. We find pra in pradhravi A 10, pratreśra A 10, M 3, pratri- A 11; bhra in bhratra A 7, where we have every reason for thinking of genuine compounds, and further rra in Kharraosta A 4; śra in iśra A 10, diśra A 15; shra in maheshri A 2, and sra in Piśpasria A 7. The apparent rr in Kharraosta was explained by Professor Thomas as perhaps representing rh. It might also be compared with the doubled r of the Saka language. The apparent śr, shr, and sr probably indicate some modification of the sibilants. We might think of a voiced pronunciation, but it is hardly possible to arrive at any certain results.

In such circumstances, we cannot do more than to reproduce the various signs in the transliteration. I shall, however, write the subscribed r within parentheses where it seems probable that it only indicates a modification of the preceding sound.

I now turn to the inscriptions themselves, retaining the designation by means of Roman capitals introduced by Bühler.

#### Α

The chief record, consisting of sixteen lines, is incised on the top (ll. 1-5) and back (ll. 6-16) of the capital, and contains the record of donations made by the chief queen of the mahakshatrapa Rajula and some of her relatives and surroundings. It has been shown in the Historical Introduction that Rajula seems to have been the Saka ruler of the Mathurā country in the first years of the first century A. D.

Ll. 1-2 are perfectly certain: mahakshatravasa Rajulasa agramahesh(r)i Ayasia, where we can only be in doubt about the division of the two last words, which Bühler read agramaheshia Yasia. L 3 was read Kamudhaa dhitra by Bühler and Komusaa dhite by Professor Thomas. Though there are some blurred strokes at the bottom of the ka I cannot see any o-mātrā. The third letter is badly defaced. There is no trace of the short vertical at the top of the supposed sa. What we have before us is a curved head, running into the mortise in front, a long broken vertical, a curve, resembling the right portion of the top of sa, and a horizontal resembling an i-mātrā. The curve to the right of the vertical may be due to the pecling off of the stone, and it seems to me that it is possible to read i. The fourth akshara is no doubt a, though there is a distinct forward bend in the middle. With every reserve I read Kamuïa and compare this word with Kamuïo, which occurs in E' below.

The last word in the line is *dhitre*, where, however, the e-stroke is very indistinct and probably not intended. I read *dhit(r)a*.

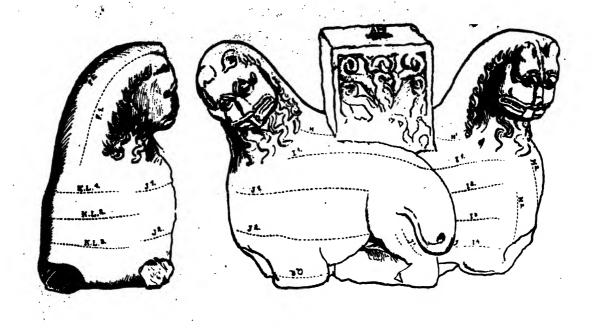
Ll. 4-5 are quite certain: Khar(r)aostasa yuvaraña mat(r)a Nadadiakasa. For Nadadiakasa Bhagvānlāl read Nadasiaka sayam, Bühler Nadasia Kasaye, and Thomas Nadadi(si?)akasa..., thinking that 'Namdasi should be read, on the analogy of the other names', though the lower stroke of the last akshara 'is curtailed (being at the edge of the stone) in such a way as to produce the appearance of the cursive da in Bühler's Table, col. viii, After sa nothing can be clearly seen on the stone. The analogy of the other names would lead us to expect -saa'.

There is room for two aksharas after -sa. The existing traces are very indistinct, but might be made out to be taye.

<sup>1</sup> Cf. Ernst Leumann, Zur nordarischen Sprache und Literatur, Strassburg, 1912, p. 41.

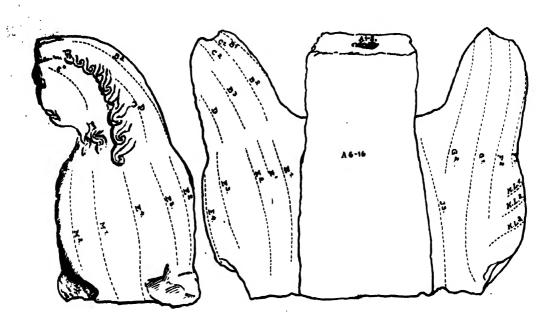
STDE OF LEFT LION

FRONT .

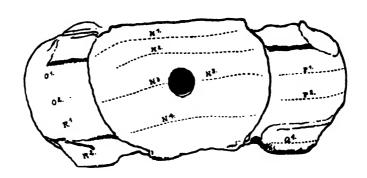


SIDE OF RIGHT LION

BACK



BOTTOM



All previous interpreters have agreed about the general purport of these lines. The chief queen of Rajula has been described as the daughter of Ayasi (or Yasi) Komusa (or Komudha), as the mother of the yuvarāja Kharaosta, and as bearing the name Nadasiakasa. Now Kharaosta has, as stated in the Introduction, been identified with Kharahostes, the son of Arṭa, who is known from coins, and I agree with Lüders¹ that we have no reason for doubting their identity. Kharaosta cannot, accordingly, have been the son of Rajula, and, if the usual interpretation of the text is correct, we must accept Lüders' explanation that Rajula's chief queen had formerly been married to Arṭa, Kharaosta's father.

There are, however, grave objections to the traditional interpretation. The yuvarāja Kharaosta is mentioned again in inscription E, in such a way that we get the impression that he was a person of some consequence. It would be natural to infer that he was not a mere child. The chief queen, on the other hand, cannot have been an aged lady. She had a son, it is true, who may or may not have been the yuvarāja Kharaosta, but both her mother and her paternal grandmother were, as we shall see, alive at the time of the inscription and associated in the gift together with her brother and her, or her brother's daughter. Her son is not mentioned in this connexion, as we shall see, and it would be possible to draw the inference that he was still a minor, in which case he cannot, of course, have been the yuvarāja Kharaosta.

According to the usual interpretation the name of the chief queen is Nadasiakasa, and this name is supposed to stand in the instrumental singular, and to be grammatically connected with the word agramaheshri of l. 2. It seems to me that it is difficult to assume a connexion between two words where so much comes in between. At all events we should have to read maheshria with Bühler, because the semi-compounds of titles and names, where only the last word receives a grammatical termination, are never separated in this way.

Moreover we should have to state that the genitive of male bases ending in i and a could take the termination a: Yasi-a, of Yasi, Komusa-a or Kamudha-a, of Komusa, or Kamudha. We have not, however, any such forms in Kharoshthī inscriptions or in the Prākrits generally. Forms such as Datiaputreņa (Kāldarra), Indavhriaputraņa (Taxila silver scroll), Kavišiakshatrapasa (Māṇikiāla), Poshapuriaputraņa (Ārā), Kamagulyaputra (Wardak) are compounds containing nouns in -ia, i. e. probably -ika, as the first part.

In such circumstances it seems impossible to take the two words following after maheshri or maheshria as genitives of male names, dependent on the ensuing dhit(r)a. To think of the chief queen's mother is excluded, because she is mentioned as bearing a different name in A 6. It becomes necessary to take the words as giving the names of the chief queen herself. We may be uncertain as to the grammatical form, which might be the nominative or the instrumental. If we bear in mind the above remarks about the compound tra, t(r)a, we must, however, prefer the former alternative, because the queen is in 1. 5 called mat(r)a, i.e.  $m\bar{a}t\bar{a}$ , the instrumental  $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  being written differently A 6. Dhit(r)a must therefore be constructed with 1. 4.

The name of the queen is accordingly Ayasia and, according to my reading, Kamuïa. Here I take Ayasia to be the real name, and Kamuïa to be a family or local name. In E the word Kamuïo is written in smaller characters between ll. 1 and 2 and below the aksharas yuva of Kharraosto yuvaraya. It seems as if the addition is meant to characterize Kharaosta, who must, in that case, have been a Kamuïa. If so, it would be a designation common to the chief queen and Kharaosta, and, as we have seen that the words

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> SBAW, 1913, pp. 423 f.; cf. Rapson, JRAS, 1905, pp. 792 ff.

Ayasia Kamuïa are not genitives dependent on *dhit(r)a*, and this latter word must consequently be connected with the following *Kharraostasa yuvaraña*, it is necessary to infer that Ayasia was the daughter of Kharaosta, and that she bore the same designation *Kamuïa* as her father.

It is impossible to say for certain what Kamuïa may mean, since it is evidently some sort of a name. I shall only mention the possibility that it may be an adjective derived from Kamboja, Old Persian Kambuja, and meaning 'the Kambojian'. That would necessitate the assumption that these family names belong to a dialect of the same kind as that of the Kharoshṭhī Dhammapada, where old mb becomes m, i.e. mm.¹

In such circumstances it becomes of interest that the words  $Kharraostasa\ yuvaraña$  are arranged so as to occupy a separate line. The chief was of some consequence, and stress is laid on his name. That may also be the reason why dhit(r)a is placed before the genitive. Ayasia's relationship to the yuvarāja is emphasized.

The title yuvarāja is not met with in other Kharoshṭhī inscriptions, nor in the inscriptions or coins of the Western Kshatrapas. Bühler says that 'the fact that Kharaosta bears the title yuvarāja indicates that he was designated to be the successor of Śudasa, be it because the latter was childless or because the order of succession went, as with the Western Kshatrapas of Chashṭana's family, from brother to brother'.

What we know about the order of succession with the Northern Kshatrapas is not in favour of the second alternative. Liaka Kusuluka was succeeded by his son Patika, and Rajula by his son Śodāsa. It seems more natural to assume that the title yuvarāja did not belong to the kshatrapas, but to the imperial line, to which Moga belonged, and that Kharaosta was the inheritor to the position as 'King of Kings' after Moga. As mentioned in the Historical Introduction, his father Arta may have been a brother of Moga, and he may himself have been designated to succeed to the imperial title, which seems, however, to have been abolished after Moga's demise, the Saka chiefs not being able to agree about the election and therefore introducing a new form of government, with more than one mahākshatrapa at the head and with kshatrapas in the minor charges. It has also been pointed out in the same place that such a state of things would explain why Rajula married Kharaosta's daughter: he wanted to strengthen his claims through a matrimonial alliance with the imperial family.

It is impossible to speak with confidence about these matters. I shall only add that if Kharaosta, and his father Arţa, were Kambojas, the same may have been the case with Moga, and we understand why the Kambojas are sometimes mentioned together with the Sakas and Yavanas.<sup>2</sup> They were a north-western people and spoke an Iranian tongue. M. Sylvain Lévi has suggested <sup>3</sup> the possibility of identifying the designations Kamboja and Kapiśa, and, if he were right, we should be forced to the conclusion that some of the imperial Sakas of the north-west hailed from the old Saka realm in Ki-pin; and in this connexion it may be worth while recalling the fact that the title jaiwa, which seems to be used of the Saka chief Patika in the copper-plate, points towards the country where later on the Kushāṇas rose to power.

The result of the above discussion is that the name of Rajula's chief queen was Ayasia Kamuïa, and that she was the daughter of Kharaosta. The word mat(r)a in l. 5 must then be connected with Nadadiakasa, i. e. she was the mother of Nadadiaka, where nada may of course stand for nanda. The name is probably not Indian, but Iranian.

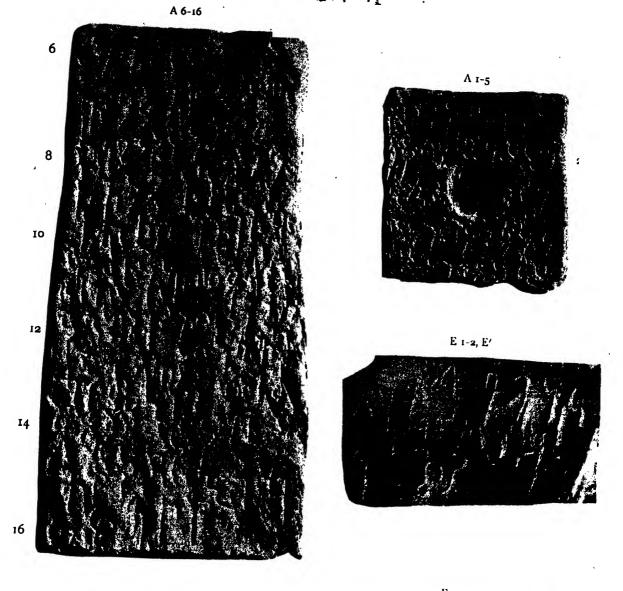
Ll. 1-5 thus contain a string of names and designations in the nominative. Now

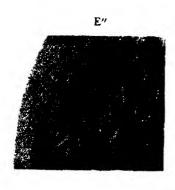
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Bloch, JA, 1X, xix, 1912, p. 332.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. e. g. Bimala Charan Law, Some Kşatriya tribes of Ancient India, Calcutta, 1923, pp. 232 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> JA, cciii, 1923, pp. 52 f.

# MATHUMA LION CAPITAL







we shall see presently that the pious deed of Ayasia Kamuïa which is recorded is described in a sentence where the verb is a past participle prat(r)ithavit(r)o. We should therefore expect the subject to be put in the instrumental, though Professor Thomas may be right in surmising that it would be possible to take prat(r)ithavit(r)o as an active participle with the subject mata in the nominative and a false concord. If I am right, however, in reading the defaced letters at the end of 1. 5 as taye, we here have the instrumental required by the context, and the whole of 11. 1-5, before this taye would be one of those parenthetic or semi-parenthetic sentences mentioned in connexion with the Patika plate.

L. 6 begins at the top of the back slab and runs sadha matra Abuhola[e], together with her mother Abuhola. The last akshara is perhaps a and not e, though I think it possible to see traces of an e-stroke sloping slightly backwards from the middle of the upright. I cannot explain the name Abuhola. Professor Thomas compares names such as  $A\beta ou\lambda i \tau \eta s$  and Spalahora. Abuhola was the mother of Ayasia Kamuïa and, if my interpretation of ll. 1-5 is right, probably the wife of Kharaosta.

L. 7 begins with pitramahi Pispas(r)ia, which must be connected with sadha of l. 6, pitramahi Pispas(r)ia forming a semi-compound, where the case suffix is only added once.

Pitramahi must be Skr. pitāmahī, and we should expect the other form of the compound tra, which stands for intervocalic t. The writing has probably been influenced by the words matra in 1. 6 and bhratra in 1. 7 f. The second akshara of Pispas(r)ia was read spa by Professor Thomas, who, however, reads the second akshara of s[a]spa 1. 13, which to my eyes is identical, spa. I cannot explain the name Pispas(r)i. It may be connected with the name Vespasi, which occurs in the Māṇikiāla inscription, and represent a Visvasikā. If Ayasia Kamuïa was the daughter of Kharaosta, Pispasi must have been the widow of Kharaosta's father Arţa.

Then follows bhratra Hayuarana sadha Hana dhi[tra]. The tra of bhatra is quite certain, that of dhitra almost entirely defaced. The name Hayuara is no doubt Iranian. It is, however, probable that Bühler is right in correcting to Hayuarena. Hana dhi[tra] is a semi-compound, where the personal name stands before the characteristic, cf. sa-Valavadhapitra in the Shahdaur inscription. It is not to be overlooked that the preposition sadha is repeated before Hana dhitra and nowhere else. It seems as if this daughter is in some way separated from the other persons associated with the queen. This leads me to think that she was the daughter of Hayuara and not of Ayasia Kamuïa. In favour of this explanation I may draw attention to the alliteration between the names Hayuara and Hana, and also to the fact that the words sadha Hana dhitra are compressed more than usual so as not to transgress the line.

L. 9 f. bring the enumeration of the persons associated in the gift to a close: ateurena horakaparivarena. The te of ateurena was not read by Bhagvānlāl, and

¹ Cf. the similar idiom in Old Persian, e.g. Behistan I, 13: Sikayauvatiš nāmā didā Nisāya nāmā dahyāuš Mādaiy avadašim avājanam, a stronghold Sikayauvati by name, a province Nisāya by name in Media, there I smote him. It is curious how common this same idiom is in Marāṭhī, cf. tyā vēļēs Vijāpur-tsā Māhmud Adilsāh Bādsāh yānē Śīvājītsā bāp Śāhājī yāchē aiśvarya Karnāṭakānt phār vāḍhvilē hōtē, at that time Mahmud Adilshah Bādshāh of Vijapur—by him, Śivājī's father Śāhājī—his power in the Carnatic had been much increased, i. e. by that time the power of Śivājī's father Śāhājī in the Carnatic had been much increased by the Emperor Mahmud Adilshah of Bijapur, see Grant Duff, History of the Marāṭhās, translated into Marāṭhî by D. Capon. New edition revised by Kāśīnāth Pānḍurang Parab, Bombay, 1876, p. 34, and cf. Ganpatrao R. Navalkar, The Student's Marāṭhī Grammar, third edition, Bombay, 1894, § 566, 3.

Professor Thomas states that it looks like *tra*, which he considers to be miswritten for *te*. So far as I can see, *te* is certain, but there is an apparent continuation of the *e*-stroke below the bottom of the akshara, the result being something looking like a closed *sa*. The *t* has not the usual *r*-curve, evidently because it was a stop and not a fricative, on account of its being preceded by a nasal, which is, as usual in our inscription, left unmarked.

Horaka has been explained by Lüders as a short form of horamurta, which is found in the Māṇikiāla inscription and evidently is a Saka rendering of the Indian dānapati.

Parivara, Skr. parivāra, occurs in many old inscriptions. In Brāhmī records we find it e.g. in the Nāsik inscriptions nos. 8 and 9, and in his edition of them M. Senart remarks: <sup>2</sup> 'It is, I think, too precise to translate saparivāra by "with his family". If such were his intention, the engraver would rather have used special names of kinship or some generic word, as jāti, which occurs elsewhere. Parivāra may, together with the family or even excluding it, apply to companions of the donor, fellow-workers or castepartners'.

The original meaning of parivāra is certainly 'cover, covering, surrounding'. It can therefore mean the covering of a carriage, a surrounding wall or hedge, an enclosure, &c., and also the surroundings, train, suite, followers, &c., but the original sense is always felt through. Horakaparivara might therefore mean 'the horaka-enclosure', 'the horaka hall, or chapter', and the term might therefore be of the same kind as ateura, Skr. antahpura, the inner apartments and, secondarily, the occupants, just like the German Frauenzimmer.

I therefore explain the *horakaparivara* as the chapter of the alms-lords, of the nobles who acted as donors, as suggested by Lüders, l. c., who thinks of the persons mentioned in inscriptions C-E below.

Then follows, ll. 10-12, the record of the pious act performed by the chief queen and her family and retinue:  $is(r)a \ pradhraviprat(r)es(r)e \ nisime sarira \ prat(r)ithavit(r)o \ bhak(r)avat(r)o \ sakamunisa Budhasa. For isra my predecessors read ise or isre, but there is no trace of the e-mātrā, which, on the other hand, is quite clear in -pratresre. Instead of pradhravi we find padhravi M 2. I have drawn attention to the inconsistent writing of such sounds in the Grammatical Introduction.$ 

Nisime was read as nisimi by Bhagvānlāl, who explained it as the locative of nisi, Skr. \*nishīda, 'a place where a Buddha has sat'. The reading nisime is, however, absolutely certain, and Bühler has justly remarked that the word also occurs in inscription J. He accepted the explanation of Pischel as nīsima, Skr. niḥsama, uneven, high, elevated, equivalent to stūpa. Professor Thomas thought of a stūpa outside the sīmā and compared the Pāli word nissīma.

There can hardly be any doubt about the identity of nisima and Pāli nissīma. Moreover nisima evidently qualifies pradhravipratresra both here and in inscription J. With regard to Pāli nissīma I have consulted the well-known Swedish scholar Mr. Helmer Smith, who refers me to the Vinaya Piṭaka, I, 12228, 133316, 2555, &c.: imam bhikkhum muhuttam nissīmam netha, take this bhikshu for a moment outside the limit (of the Vihāra); āgantukehi nissīmam gatvā uposatho kātabbo, guests should go outside the limit and perform the uposatha; nissīmatiho anumodati, standing outside the limit he approves. The last passage is explained by Buddhaghosha to mean bahi upachārasīmāya thito anumodati, while bahisīmagatassa, ibidem I, 25526, is rendered as aññam

sāmantavihāram gatassa. Nissīma therefore means 'lying just outside the limit', viz. of the Vihāra field proper, but close to it and evidently belonging to the Vihāra, because bahisīma refers to what is farther off, belonging to another Vihāra.

L. 13 was read by Bhāgvānlāl-Bühler as mukihitaya saspae bhusati, it will conduce to eternal welfare, (viz.) liberation. Professor Thomas read ma(mra)kiṭe(hi)ra(?)ya saspae bhusaveti(?), may it be for the eternal . . . of the Holy Śākya sage Buddha.

The first akshara is almost identical with the mu of the Patika inscription. Muki cannot, however, be Skr. mukli, liberation, because kt becomes t, i. e. tt, in the dialect; cf. sambhatiga (Wardak), uta (Kurram).

The next word seems to be saspae, but the e is not certain. The apparent e-stroke is placed above the top and not to the right of the vertical, and it seems to me that it is not impossible to read a. Saspae cannot represent Skr. sasvate, even if we were prepared to assume the existence of an Indian sasvat in addition to sasvat, corresponding to Greek dwas. For intervocalic t is in these records everywhere retained as tr. Saspae could hardly be anything else than Skr. sāśvāya, and if we could read mukivriraya and explain this as Mogavīrāya, saspae would perhaps be possible, though it would be strange to find vriraya side by side with saspae. It will be seen that the vertical of sa is bent forwards and thus becomes different from the usual sa of these records. It is conceivable that we have to do with the old shape of the *u*-matra and should read suspac, though su shows the usual loop-shape in G 1. Suspa would correspond to Skr. susva, which occurs as a bahuvrihi in Pāṇini v, iv, 120, together with suprata and sudina. These latter words are also used as nouns, with the meaning 'a good morning', 'a good day', respectively. If the same were the case with suspa, we might translate suspae as 'for a good to-morrow', 'in order to secure a good hereafter'. But such an explanation does not seem to be very likely.

The ensuing aksharas cannot be read as bhusati, because the third akshara is certainly vi and is, moreover, followed by a fourth letter, which seems to me to be a clear ta, without an i-stroke and without the apparent r-sign, which is always used when t stands for an uncompound intervocalic t. Nor could bhusati be a future of bhū, because we know from the Kharoshthī Dhammapada that a cerebral s was used in such forms; cf. e. g. karishadi A²6. For a similar reason Professor Thomas's bhūsā is unlikely. Bhusavita seems to be a gerund of a base bhusava, i. e. a bhusavitvā; cf. Ardhamāgadhī vandittā, avakkamittā, jiņittā, thavittā, bhuñjāvittā, &c.¹ Also bhusaviti would be a gerund; cf. pramajeti A²3, parivajeti A²8, baheti B 27, in the Dhammapada manuscript.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Pischel, Grammatik der Präkrit-Sprachen, § 582.

We might think of explaining *bhusavita* as a gerund of a verb corresponding to Pāli *bhūsāpeti*, he adorns. But we should fail to see why the cerebral s is not used after u. The use of s in forms such as *bhikshusa* does not form a parallel, because there we have before us a living suffix, while we could hardly imagine a *bhusana*, corresponding to Skr. *bhūshaṇa*.

In such circumstances I cannot see any other possibility than to read saspa abhusavita, and to explain abhusavita as the gerund of a denominative from utsava, preceded by abhi. The whole would then mean: after having made the festival, i. e. after having performed the (funeral) solemnities, over the illustrious king Moga together with his horse. This explanation is highly hypothetical, the more so because we do not know anything about the royal funeral ceremonies of the Sakas. But I cannot see any other way of analysing the passage in accordance with the phonetical laws of the dialect.

The remaining lines on the back are clear: thuva cha sagharama cha chat(r)udis(r)asa saghasa sarvastivat(r)ana parigrahe. The shape of tru in chatru seems to show that chatur and not chatru is the original. Also the d of disrasa bears witness to the old r after u. Professor Thomas read disesa for disrasa, just as in isra, l. 10.

The words thuva cha sagharama cha must be taken together with the preceding sarira, as in the Patika plate. The stūpa and the monastery were apparently situated inside the sīmā.

The form sarvastivatrana for sarvāstivādinām is also met with in the Kurram casket.

An inspection of the original shows that the most natural way of continuing is to go on from the last line on the back of the slab to the back of the right lion and to begin from the bottom, where we find the inscriptions marked E, E' and E'', which all evidently belong together.

El. 1 runs Khar(r)aosto yuvaraya and is written in large letters, so that we again get the impression that care has been taken to give prominence to the person mentioned in the line. The secondary r-stroke in Kharra- is indistinct, but traceable. Below the aksharas yuva we find, as mentioned above, the word kamuïo, written in smaller letters. Bühler read komuïo, which he explained as representing Skr. kaumudikaḥ, but there is no trace of an o-mātrā. I have already stated that I take kamuïo as a designation of Kharaosta, and perhaps as representing Skr. kāmbojaka.

In E 2 Bhagvānlāl and Bühler read Jalamasa kumara, but I agree with Professor Thomas that the first akshara is certainly kha. Khalamasa is evidently an un-Indian name. As remarked by Professor Thomas, the element khala is also found in the name Khalasamuso J' below. Kumāra denotes a royal prince, different from and younger than the yuvarāja.¹ Khalamasa was evidently a brother of Kharaosta. Then follows in E 3 Maja kanitha. Bhagvānlāl took maja together with the preceding kumara as kumārātmaja, but tm becomes tv in the dialect, where it is not kept unchanged. Maja is evidently the name of another brother.

E 4 was read samanachhatra, i.e. samanakshatra by Bühler, but there cannot be any doubt that Bhagvānlāl was right in reading samanamotra. Professor Thomas suggests that the o-stroke of motra is accidental, 'in which case we may understand the words samānā mātā as indicating that the three sons named were uterine brothers'. It seems to me that we must connect samanamotra with the aksharas kra karita incised on the right cheek of the right lion, as done by Bühler. It will be seen that the na of samanamotra is exceptionally long and has a forward bend of the upright. A still more pronounced bend is,

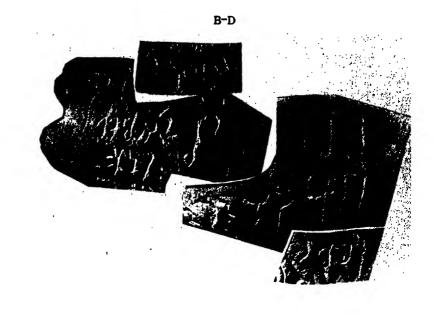
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Sylvain Lévi, JA, IX, xix, 1902, pp. 96 f. = Ind. Ant., xxxiii, 1904, pp. 163 f.

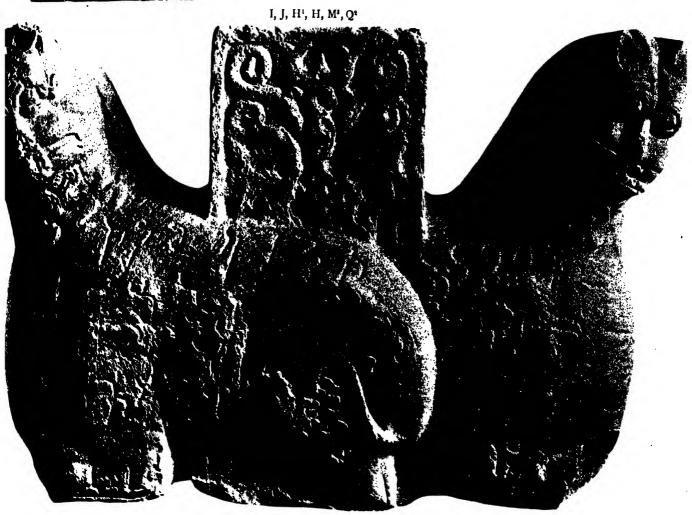
# MATHURĀ LION CAPITAL INSCRIPTIONS B, C, D, M, I, J, H<sup>1</sup>, H, M<sup>2</sup>, Q<sup>2</sup>

M









it is true, found in the ni of kanitha in E 3. Still I am inclined to think that we have to do with an u-stroke so that we should read nu. It is possible that the distinct bend in kanitha has been transferred by mistake from 1. 4 to 1. 3. We shall find some indications later on, which seem to show that the records were originally drafted on the stone in smaller letters, before they were finally engraved. In such circumstances slight mistakes might easily crop in. I therefore read saman[u]motra and connect this with kra to samanumotrakra. We have seen in pratrefre A 10 that an intervocalic single d is written tr, and samanumotrakra can therefore represent a Skr. samanumodaka, assenting, i.e. assenting to the donation, associated in the grant.

It would be tempting to explain the ensuing karita as a past participle, Skr. karitah, but we have already seen that there is no single instance of an intervocalic t being kept unmodified. It always becomes tr. We must therefore probably explain karita as a gerund, corresponding to Ardhamāgadhī karittā. Moreover, we cannot overlook the fact that Kharraosto has the nominative termination o, which is missing in Khalamasa and Maja. I therefore take these latter words to be accusatives and explain Kharraosto yuvaraya as the subject of the gerund karita, translating the record as follows: after the heir apparent Kharaosta had made the prince Khalamasa and Maja, the youngest (brother) assenting (parties to the donation). I would compare the similar idiom in the Praveśaka of the fourth act of the Svapnavāsavadattā: ayyautto iha āachchhia imain kusumasamiddhim pekkhia sammānida bhaveam, when my husband has come and seen the wreath of flowers, I may be honoured, where we likewise have a nominative as independent subject of a gerund.

After E it would seem natural to go on with inscription M, just below E. It seems, however, as if there has been a desire to draw special attention to the person named in the beginning of M, and that his name has therefore been placed first in large characters on the neck of the right lion, and then, in a shorter form, after E. I therefore go on with inscription B.

B 1 mahakshatravasa is quite clear, tr having the angular r-stroke with a dot in front. There is a cross-stroke on the right side of ksha, which Professor Thomas thinks may indicate duplication. We shall find a similar stroke in M, and it seems possible that these strokes are intended to show that B and M should be read together.

B 2 runs Vajulasa putra, which is clearly miswritten for Rajulasa putra. The tra has the angular r-stroke and two short strokes in front. They are perhaps intended to indicate that the words written in smaller letters in front of putra should be inserted in this place or after B 3, which runs Sudase kshatrave, with the same shape of tra as in B 1. There is no case-suffix in putra, and we therefore here have one of those semi-compounds, where only the last word is inflected. The words mahakshatravasa [Ra]julasa putra show that there cannot be any question of considering Kharaosta as the son of Rajula.

The words Śudase kshatrave were taken as absolute locatives by Bühler. We shall see later on, however, that the same words in M evidently give the logical subject of the past participle niyatritro, and I therefore accept Lüders' explanation of the forms as instrumentals, not, however, of the plural, but of the singular. Cf. the Grammatical Introduction.

The inscriptions C and D I take to be parenthetical additions. We have seen in E that the yuvarāja Kharaosta has been associated with two younger brothers and has been characterized as Kamura. Sudasa was evidently the second important person connected

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Ed. Gaņapati Sāstrī, Trivandrum, 1912, p. 33, l. 2.

with the pious deeds commemorated in the inscriptions, and also his position and family relations are therefore mentioned. That is done in inscriptions C and D.

C is, as already mentioned, engraved in front of B 2 and 3. It runs (1) Kaluï a(2) varajo. The last akshara is provided with some strokes running backwards from the vertical and forward below the upper limb. They are, perhaps, like the strokes in front of the first akshara, meant to indicate that C is to be inserted after putra. D is engraved below Sudase in B 3, and should probably be read after B 3.

I therefore read B-E as one context: mahakshatravasa Va(Ra)julasa putra—Kaluï avarajo—Śudase kshatrave—Naüludo, by the mahākshatrapa Rajula's son,—he was born after Kaluï (or, Kaluï is his younger brother)—, the kshatrapa Śudasa—the Naüluda. Naüluda seems to be an addition of the same kind as Kamuia, E'.

After these additions the name and title of Sudasa are repeated in M, which is incised below E 4, and runs on into the breast of the right lion. It begins kshatrave Sudise, where I take the apparent o-mātrā in the first akshara to indicate that we have here the direct continuation of B. The *i*-stroke in Sudise is curious. The kshatrapa's name was clearly Sodāsa, with a long  $\bar{a}$ . The *i* is therefore either a mistake or a sign of reference, of the same kind as the apparent o of kshatrave, indicating that B should be inserted in this place.

M 2-3 run imo padhraviprat(r)esro, representing Skr. ayam prithivīpradešah or imam prithivīpradešam. As seen by Thomas 1 and Lüders 2 the inscription I, incised on the front of the capital, forms an immediate continuation: I 1-4 veyaüdirna kadhavaro busaparo kadhavaro viyaü. For udirna Bühler read udino and Professor Thomas am(u)dirna(dinam). It seems to me that the reading is absolutely certain. For busa Bhagvānlāl read usa, and Bühler busa or tusa. After the bu of busaparo another bu has been incised in small size. I cannot explain it otherwise than by assuming that the record was first drafted in small letters on the stone, and then executed in larger size. The akshara bu has then not been cancelled with the rest of the draft and then subsequently engraved through misunderstanding.

For viyati Bühler and Thomas read viyaa. It seems to me, however, that the break in the leg of the akshara is too pronounced, and though there is no loop, I consider u as the most probable reading.

I 2-4 are engraved in short lines under the word veyaüdirna. The continuation must evidently be looked for below the continuation of I 1. We there find a comparatively large space without any letters, where some portion of the stone seems to have peeled off. Before the vacant space there is a rva of exceptionally large size, preceded by viya in characters of the same size as the small bu after bu in busaparo. Professor Thomas suggests the possibility of explaining this viya as an insertion to show that the large rva is an error for vya = viya. In my opinion it is a remnant of the first draft, which has not been cancelled and therefore subsequently engraved. I take it to be a doublet of viya in I 4.

Professor Thomas states that there is room for seven or eight aksharas after rva. The four last of them I can distinctly read as raparena, and I am inclined to think that nothing is in reality missing, and that the open space in front of rva was originally intended for the aksharas viyaü of I 4 and rva, and that, viyaü having been engraved in another place, the result was a blank after rva.

After raparena the text runs on, on the breast of the left lion, with a word which Bühler read P[u] lishtena, while Thomas thought that palirdina is also possible. The

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Ep. Ind., ix, p. 145.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> SBAW, 1913, p. 418<sup>2</sup>.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Bühler restored [śamana], which is impossible.

third akshara is, however, clearly chhi. Only the lower curve has been placed so high up that it touches the upper hook.

The continuation follows in the line beginning below raparena and has always been read without any difficulty:  $nisimo \ karita \ niyat(r)it(r)o$ . These words must contain the termination of the sentence beginning with kshatrave Sudise. Karita, with a plain ta at the end, must be explained as in E", as corresponding to Ardhamagadhi karitta, and connected with nisimo, which consequently stands for nissīmam, as so often in the Kharoshthī Dhammapada. We thus arrive at a sentence: kshatrave Sudise imo padhraviprat(r)cs(r)o...nisimo karita niyat(r)it(r)o. It would, of course, be possible to explain kshatrave Sudise as a double locative, 'when Sudasa was kshatrapa', as done by Bühler. It would, however, be difficult to understand why such a remark should be twice repeated, if it were not intended to state that Sudasa had had something to do with the donation recorded, and this consideration seems to make it necessary to explain the words as instrumentals. We must then translate: 'by the kshatrapa Śudasa this piece of land . . . was handed over, having made it nissīma, i.e. lying just outside the limit', or, 'by Śudasa, after having made this piece of land .. nissīma, it was handed over'. We learn from this that the nissima formed part of the Vihara ground. The sentence accordingly records a donation of a piece of land to the Vihāra.

The portion intervening between padhraviprat(r)es(r)o and nisimo is the most difficult one on the whole capital. The way to the proper understanding has been shown by Lüders, who explains the passage as a fuller description of  $imo\ padhraviprat(r)es(r)o$ .

Bühler explained his veyaildino kadhavaro busaparo kadhavaro viyaa as Skr. vegodīrņah skandhāvārah busaparah skandhāvārah vijayah, the army started in haste; the army (is) intent on wealth: victory!

Thomas objected that skandhāvāra does not mean 'army', but 'encampment'; that the meaning 'riches' attached to busa is attested only by Wilson's dictionary; that the reading u in veyaü- is not certain, am and even a being possible, and that the change of g to y in vega is contrary to the tendencies of the language employed in these inscriptions. He mentions the possibility of reading veyaamdinam kadhavaro, Skr. vaijayantīnām skandhāvārah, but does not think such a reading and explanation promising.

Lüders reads veyaam dinam and sees in dinam the participle dinnam, given; kadhavaro, he says, can scarcely be Skr. skandhāvāra, which ought to become khadhavara, but probably contains the word kanthā, which means 'town' in the Saka language, but is also known to Pāṇini. Veyaa and Busaparo he explains as names of localities, and viya as corresponding to Skr. api cha, taking the final a together with the small viya before rva as representing Skr. api cha, and further. He thus arrives at the following translation: by the kshatrapa Śudisa this plot of land has been given, (viz.) the excellent place Veyaa and also the excellent place Busapara, and further...

So far as I can see there is no objection to explaining kadhavaro as representing Skr. skandhāvāraḥ. The Kharoshthī Dhammapada has kanhaṇa for Skr. skandhānām B 13, and in the Kurram inscription we find samkara, Skr. samskāra, and kamdha, Skr. skandha, with k and not kh, though here a small stroke is placed above k to show a slight modification of the sound.

It seems natural to assume that the Saka chiefs, who set up the capital, were encamped before Mathurā, where they had evidently gathered in strength, engaged in some warlike expedition. If Moga is, as suggested above, actually referred to in A, he may have been the leader and have been killed, or he may have died, before the expedition started. It is tempting to connect the Saka gathering with the pressure exercised by the Parthians, who, as we shall see in connexion with the Takht-i-Bāhī inscription,

had become established in the north-west one year before the date of the Patika plate of the year 78, and who later on also made themselves masters of Taxila. But we cannot arrive at certainty.

The Sakas took the opportunity to make religious donations. Rajula's chief queen established a relic of the Buddha in a piece of land, which Sudasa, the local kshatrapa, made into a nissīma plot for the Order. And this piece of land had been used by the Sakas for their encampments. Veyaüdirna and Busapara were the names of these encampments. Veyaüdirna I cannot explain. In some way it may correspond to the later vijayaskandhāvāra. Busapara may mean 'where the refuse (busa) is the further limit', or 'beyond the refuse gatherings'.

I further read viyaü and follow Lüders in explaining vi ya as Skr. api cha, taking u together with rvaraparena as representing Skr. urvarāpārena, by the place where the cultivated fields (urvarā) are the further limit, or, by the further limit of the cultivated fields. Palichhina, finally, I identify with Skr. parichchhinna, limited. I thus arrive at the following translation: by the kshatrapa Sudisa this piece of land, the Veyaüdirna encampment and also the Busapara encampment, limited by the Urvarapara, was, after having made it nissima, handed over.

Above the aksharas udirna and busapa, respectively, there are two short legends in small characters, marked H', H. The former, which is almost illegible in the plate, runs dhamadana, the second, above busapa, guhavihare. If my explanation of the small characters, which are found here and elsewhere, is right, we must infer that these entries were originally overlooked by the mason and therefore subsequently executed as they stood. It is difficult to say where they should be inserted. They may be intended to characterize Sudasa's grant as a religious donation to the Guhavihara.

Bühler took this to mean 'the Guha-monastery'. Dr. Fleet¹ thought of the possibility that Guhavihare might represent Skr. guhāvihāre, in the cave-vihāra, and Professor Thomas adopts that translation. Dr. Fleet proposed to identify this with the monastery mentioned by Hüan-tsang,² who says: 'To the east of the city, about 5 or 6 li, we come to a mountain saṅghārāma. The hill-sides are pierced to make cells (for the priests). We enter it through a valley, as by gates. This was constructed by the honourable Upagupta. There is in it a stūpa containing the nail-parings of the Tathāgata'.

It is of no consequence that Hüan-tsang was told that the establishment went back to the times of Upagupta. What he saw was a stūpa, which was said to contain relics, a sanghārāma, and cells excavated in the hill-side. This is at least a remarkable coincidence.

The continuation of the context is evidently contained in inscriptions K and L, to the left of J 1 and J 2, on the side of the left lion. There are three lines: (1) ayariasa, (2) Budhatrevasa, (3) utraena ayimita.<sup>3</sup> The last word was read ayimito by Bühler and ayimisa by Thomas, while Bhagvānlāl had suggested ayimitasa and translated '(for the merit) of Buddhadeva, the āchārya (land) of Udayana Āryamitra'. Bühler translated: 'on account of the exaltation (udayena) of the teacher Buddhadeva, Ayimita', and Thomas: 'through the elevation of the āchārya Buddhadeva, Ayimisa', at the same time proposing to explain ayimisa as a genitive with dāna understood. Finally Lüders explained utraena as corresponding to Skr. udakena and thought that some word meaning 'to give' might be contained in ayimisa or ayimita, so that there would be the question about the transfer of the donation by means of water, i.e. with libations of water.

I accept Lüders' explanation and see in ayimita a gerund of a-yam, cf. the frequent

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JRAS, 1905, p. 156.

<sup>2</sup> Julien, *Mémoires*, i, p. 210; Beal, *Si-yu-Ki*, i, p. 181.

<sup>3</sup> See plate IX, right corner of section F 2, G, J 2.

compound pra-yam, to give, to bestow. With regard to the change of a to i we may compare ai for ayam B 17, samadai for samādāya B 26 in the Kharoshṭhī Dhammapada, and as to the sense the term parīndana.

Sylvain Lévi wanted to identify this Buddhadeva with the Vaibhāshika āchārya Buddhadeva, who belonged to the generation immediately after Ghoshaka and Vasumitra, who taught in the time of Kanishka and his successor. But the Lion Capital is at least a century older than Kanishka.

It seems natural to continue with inscriptions F, G and J 3, on and below the neck of the left lion:

F. 1 Budhilasa nakraraasa (F 2) bhikhusa sarvastivatrasa, where nakraraa represents Skr. nāgaraka, from Nagara, on the Kābul river.

Sylvain Lévi <sup>2</sup> wanted to identify this Budhila with the Fo-t'i-lo, master of the Sāstras, who composed the treatise Tri-chin-lun (Samyuktatattvaśāstra?) for the use of the Mahāsāmghika school, in a convent of the same, 140 or 150 li west of the capital of Kashmir, and whose work explained metaphysics, the Prajñā of the Mahāsāmghikas. This would well agree with what we learn about Budhila below in inscription N, but it is impossible to say anything for certain, so long as we do not know anything about the date of this teacher. At all events, there can hardly be any doubt about the identity of Budhila and Budhat(r)eva, the former being a regular short-form of the latter. The name has been repeated so that the āchārya can be further characterized.

G 1 mahakshatravasa Kusul[u]asa Patikasa Mevakisa G 2 Miyikasa kshatravasa puyae. The tra in -kshatravasa is here without the additional dot or stroke which we find elsewhere in this word, so that we might think of transliterating t(r)a. It is, however, probable that we have only to do with an abbreviated writing. The final sa of Mevakisa is misshaped, and Bühler wrote that the akshara can only be an abnormal da or a cha. I have no doubt, however, that sa is intended, the sloping lower line of the head having been drawn too long and the leg having become reduced to a minimum.

The third u of Kusul[u]asa is not certain. It consists of a dot at the bottom and a curious stroke projecting from the upright. It is possible that Bühler and Thomas were right in reading Kusalaasa. For Patikasa Thomas read Padikasa, but di in A 15, I 1, is different.

Kusulua Patika has been identified with Patika, the son of Liaka Kusuluka, who is mentioned in the Taxila copper-plate inscription of the year 78, i.e., as suggested above, 6 B.C., and I see no reason for rejecting this identification. Who Mevaki Miyika was we know not. The name Mevaki has been compared by Professor Thomas with the Scythian name Mauakes, Mevakys, and further with Moga, and Miyika with names such as Midakhos, i.e. Madhyaka, or Mazdaka, Mazakes, or Pahlavī mēyān.<sup>3</sup>

The end of the passage recording Sudasa's grant is evidently J 3: sarvastivat(r) and parigrahe.

The aim of these inscriptions is, as we have seen, to record the establishment of relics by Rajula's chief queen and the grant of the land where they were established by Sudasa. The space on the bottom of the capital has further been utilized for some additional information connected with the donations, in inscriptions N-Q.

N is incised inside the circle at the bottom, but the first line protrudes over the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JA, 1x, viii, 1896, p. 450 = Ind. Ant., xxxii, 1903, p. 383<sup>4</sup>; cf. Barnett, JRAS, 1913, p. 945.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Cf. JRAS, 1906, p. 213, and Rapson, JRAS, 1894, p. 548, where the name of a kshatrapa Mevaku is traced on a coin.

whole of the bottom. It runs: ayariasa Budhilasa nak(r)arak(r)asa bhikhu. Professor Thomas read nakraraasa, but the second kra is absolutely certain. The termination sa of the word bhikhu follows in l. 2, where we further read: sarvastivat(r)asa pagra, followed by a blank, which Bhagvānlāl filled up by hā, while Bühler thought that he could read sa in a squeeze in his possession. I agree with Professor Thomas that there are no traces of writing after gra, and I follow him in running on with l. 3: na mahasaghiana pra, and l. 4: mañavitrave khalulasa.

Bühler, who read pagasana and prañavida vakhalulasa, translated: '(in honour) of the teacher Buddhila, a native of Nakara (Nagara), a Sarvāstivāda monk, who knows the wisdom (prajūavid) of the famous (prakašanam) Mahāsāmghikas and is eager to explain it'. He stated that Bhagvānlāl took vida as equivalent to vidyā and translated 'delighting in the exposition of wisdom and knowledge to the members of the Great Congregation', and objected against this that the Mahāsāmghikas were opposed to the Sarvāstivādins, thinking that 'perhaps the inscription means to praise Buddhila for his proficiency in the doctrines of the two schools'.

Professor Thomas took pramañavitrave as representing prāmāṇyavittve, in the knowledge of the nature of proof, and suggested to compare khalula with the unexplained khadūra (Atharvaveda XI, ix. 16) and with khadūrikā, a military exercise-ground, or to connect it with the base khand. He thus arrived at the translation: an exercise-ground in the knowledge of the nature of proof to the vanguard of the Mahāsāṃghikas.

The reading pramañavitrave shows that the tra of trave can only represent an uncompound intervocalic t. The termination tave is well known as forming infinitives both in Pāli and in Ardhamāghadhī. A verbal base pramañav is not likely, but  $\tilde{n}avit(r)ave$  would be a regular infinitive of the causal  $j\tilde{n}apayati$ , and then prama must be explained as Skr. pramam, and as the object of  $\tilde{n}avit(r)ave$ . The word khalula I cannot explain. It reminds me of khalvala, the name of a Vedic school.

It is evident that N has been added in order to give additional information about Budhila, and I therefore take ayariasa Budhilasa to be a repetition of ayariasa Budha- $\ell(r)evasa$  K L and Budhilasa nak(r)araasa F 1.

It seems most natural to go on with inscription O, below the end of N 1. The reading is perfectly certain: sarvabudhana puya dhamasa (2) puya saghasa puya.

Just below O 2 we find R: Takshilasa (2) Kroninasa, but this record is evidently supplementary to the record P, on the right side of the base, and I therefore take P to continue O.

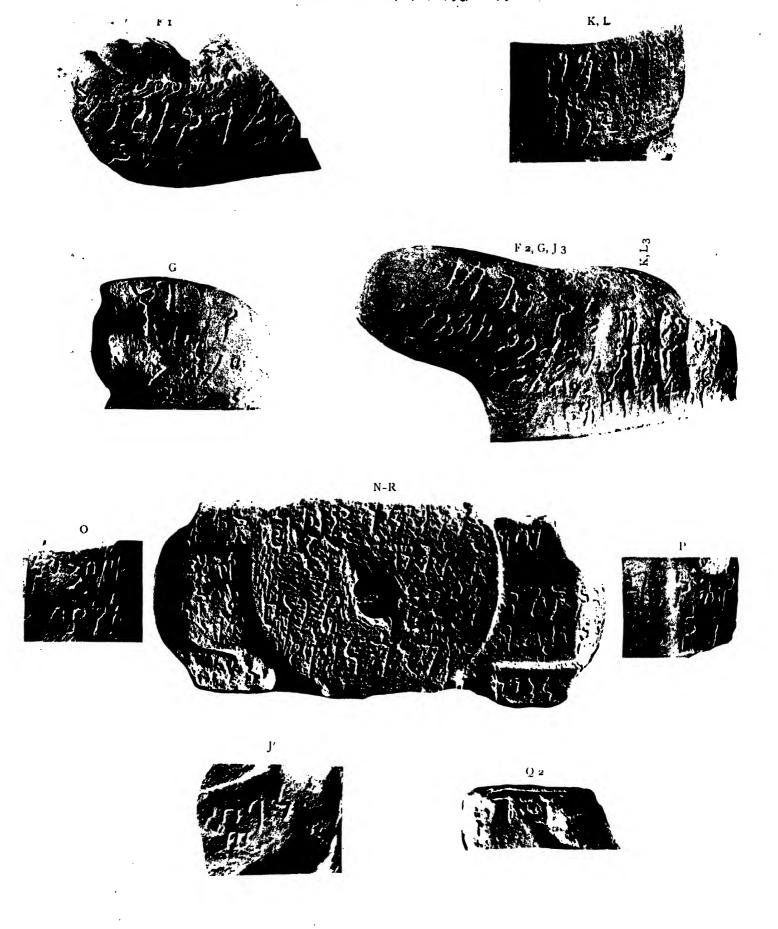
The reading of P is beyond doubt: sarvasa Sak(r)asta(2)nasa puyae. The writing kra should be noted. Cf. the above remarks about r-compounds. Nor can there be much doubt that Bühler was right in translating 'in honour of the whole Sakastana'. Dr. Fleet wanted to explain sakra as corresponding to Sanskrit svaka and translated 'for the worship of the whole of (his, her, or their) own home', but later on accepted a suggestion by Hultzsch, that sarvasa might be the genitive of the name Sarva, 'which is well established both with the dental s and with the palatal s', and translated: '(gift) of Sarva, in honour of his home'. M. Barth accepted the explanation of Sarvasa and translated 'of Sava, native of Sakastana; to render homage'.

Now the name Sarra may, no doubt, occur with a dental s, not, however, in dialects where s and s' are correctly distinguished, as is the case in the north-western vernacular of the Kharoshṭhī inscriptions. And stana, Skr. sthāna, can hardly mean 'home' in this connexion.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JRAS, 1904, pp. 703 ff.; 1905, pp. 154 f., 643 f.

# · MATHURĀ LĪON CAPITAL

INSCRIPTIONS K, L, F, G, J<sub>3</sub>, N-R, J'



The remaining records, moreover, make the impression of being added as a further specialization of Sak(r)astana, mentioning Saka chiefs, whose names have not been previously recorded.

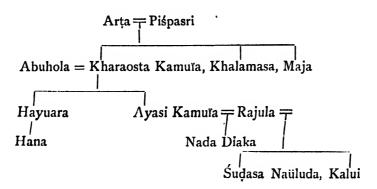
Q, just below P and continued on the front of the capital, runs: Khardaasa (2) kshatravasa, where it is impossible to decide whether Khardaa is the name of the kshatrapa or of the country over which he held charge.

Then comes, on the opposite side of the base, inscription R, which has already been quoted: Takshilasa (2) Kroninasa. Professor Thomas thinks that we should perhaps read Rakshilasa, but the ta seems to be certain. Bühler took Takshilasa to mean 'a native of Takshaśilā' and read Kodinasa, Skr. Kaundinyasya, for Kroninasa, while Professor Thomas thought that Kroninasa might stand for koninasa and represent Skr. kaundinya. In the first place, however, initial k could not well be written kr, and then it seems extremely unlikely that an Indian name should occur here in the midst of the Saka chiefs. Takshila, finally, can hardly represent Skr. Takshaśila. Everything points to the conclusion that Takshila is the name of a person, and Kronina either a secondary name or a designation referring to his place of activity or origin, or to his position.

There remains one record, written from below and running upwards towards inscription J on the front of the capital. It was read *khalasama*(2) so by Bühler, but Professor Thomas, who distinguished it as J', was certainly right in reading *Khalasamuso*. The word is probably the name of some Saka chief, or perhaps of the *navakarmika* as in the Patika plate, who wanted to be associated in the merit derived from the pious deeds recorded in the inscription.

In addition to the persons in some way related to Rajula, the mahākshatrapa of Mathurā, we thus find the names of several chiefs and nobles: the mahākshatrapa Kusulua Patika, whose dominion was no doubt the Taxila country; the kshatrapa Mevaki Miyika, who seems to be associated with him and perhaps was kshatrapa in the Taxila province; the kshatrapa Khardaa, and the persons called Takshila Kronina and Khalasamusa.

The family or families connected with Rajula may be arranged according to the following scheme:



The records on the capital belong to a later time than the Taxila copper-plate of 6 B.C., because Patika, who was then a jaiiva, had now become mahākshatrapa, and they are earlier than the Amohinī inscription of A.D. 15, because the kshatrapa Sudasa had then become mahākshatrapa. They may be approximately dated between A.D. 5 and 10.

I now give my reading and translation of the inscriptions, writing the subscript r within parentheses, where it only seems to denote a modified pronunciation of the preceding consonant.

#### Text

#### Α

(1) mahaksha[tra]vasa Rajulasa (2) agramahesh(r)i Ayasia (3) Kamuïa dhit(r)a (4) Khar(r)aostasa yuvaraña (5) mat(r)a Nada Diakasa [taye] (6) sadha matra Abuhola[e] (7) pitramahi Piśpas(r)ia bhra(8)tra Hayuarana sadha Hana dhi[tra] (9) a[te]urena horakapa(10)rivarena iś(r)a pradhraviprat(r)e(11)ś(r)e nisime śarira prat(r)ithavit(r)o (12) bhak(r)avat(r)o Śakamunisa Budhasa (13) Muki[śri]raya saśpa [a]bhusavi[ta] (14) thuva cha sagharama cha chat(r)u(15)diś(r)asa saghasa sarva(16)stivat(r)ana parigrahe.

F

(1) Khar(r)aosto yuvaraya (E') Kamuïo (2) Khalamasa kumara (3) Maja kanitha (4) saman[u] mot(r)a(E")k(r)a karita

B

(1) mahakshatravasa (2) Va(ra)julasa putra (C)Kaluï a(C 2)varajo (3) Śuḍase kshatrave (D) Naüludo

M

(1) kshatrave Śudida)se (2) imo padhravi(3)prat(r)eś(r)o

I

(1) Veyaüdirna kadhavaro Busapa(2)ro kadha(3)varo (4) vi ya u(J1)rvaraparena palichhina (2) nisimo karita niyat(r)it(r)o (H') dhamadana (H) guhavihare

KL

(1) ayariasa (2) Budhat(r)evasa (3) ut(r)aena ayimi[ta]

F

(1) Budhilasa nak(r)araasa (2) bhikhusa sarvastivat(r)asa

G

(t) mahakshat[r]avasa Kusul[u]asa Patikasa Mevaki[sa] (2) Miyikasa kshat[r]avasa puyae

J 3 sarvastivat(r)ana parigrahe

N

(1) ayariasa Budhilasa nak(r)arak(r)asa bhikhu(2)sa sarvastivat(r)asa pagra(3)na mahasaghiana pra(4)ma ñavit(r)ave khalulasa

0

(1) sarvabudhana puya dhamasa(2)puya saghasa puya

P

(1) sarvasa Sak(r)asta(2)nasa puyae

O

(1) Khardaasa (2) kshatravasa

R

(1) Takshilasa (2) Kroninasa

(1) Khalasamu(2)so.

#### TRANSLATION

The chief queen of the mahākshatrapa Rajula, Ayasia Kamuïa, the daughter of the yuvarāja Kharaosta, the mother of Nada Diaka, by her, together with her mother Abuhola, her father's mother Piśpasi, her brother Hayuara with his daughter Hana, the harem and the alms-lord chapter, was established in this piece of land, which is just outside the (samghārāma) border, the relic of the Lord Śākyamuni, the Buddha—after having

performed the solemnities over the illustrious king Muki and his horse,—and a stūpa and a samghārāma, in the acceptance of the order of the four quarters of the Sarvāstivādins.

The yuvarāja Kharaosta, Kamuïa, having made prince Khalamasa (and) Maja, the youngest, assenting parties, by the mahākshatrapa Rajula's son,—the younger brother of Kaluï—, the kshatrapa Śuḍasa, Nauluda—, by the kshatrapa Śuḍasa this piece of land, (viz.) the encampment Veyaudirna, and also the encampment Busapara, limited by Urvarapara, was granted, after having made it (an appurtenance just) outside the limit—as a religious gift in the cave-monastery—, having given it, with (libations of) water, to the teacher Buddhadeva: to Budhila from Nagara, the Sarvāstivādin monk,—in honour of the mahākshatrapa Kusuluka Patika (and) the kshatrapa Mevaki Miyika—, in trust of the Sarvāstivādins: to the teacher Budhila from Nagara, the Sarvāstivādin monk, a khalula (dialectician?) to teach the foremost Mahāsāmghikas the truth; as honouring of all the Buddhas, honouring of the Law, honouring of the Order; in honour of the whole Sakastana, of the kshatrapa Khardaa, of Takshila Kronina. Khalaśamuśa.

#### XVI. PLATE X. 1: MATHURA ELEPHANT INSCRIPTION

There is in the Mathurā Museum a small stone,  $11_8^{\circ}$  in. long and  $8_8^{\circ}$  in. high. It shows in relievo a decorated elephant, trotting towards the right. Above the back of the elephant, in the upper left-hand corner of the stone, is a Kharoshthī inscription, consisting of five aksharas of an average size of  $\frac{1}{2}$  in.  $-\frac{3}{4}$  in.

The stone was found by the honorary curator of the Museum, Pandit Radha Krishna, in a mound at Rawal near Mathurā, and a short notice of the inscription was published in 1927.<sup>1</sup>

The characters are too few to allow of a certain dating. Kha has a rather square head and reminds us of the Zeda inscription. Tu reminds us of the Māṇikiāla bronze, but the u-loop is added behind, as in the u of the Mathurā Lion Capital inscription I 1. Dha has almost the same shape as in the Fatehjang record. Sa has its nearest parallels on the Mathurā Lion Capital, and the same is the case with sta.

The reading is perfectly certain and runs: sastukhadhatu. It can only be doubted whether the final akshara should not be read du. Nor can there be any doubt with regard to the interpretation. The words mean 'the collar-bone (aksha) relic (dhatu) of the Lord (sāstṛi)'.

The meaning of the scene depicted is also clear. We read in the Dīpavamsa, chapter xv, and Mahāvamsa, chapter xviii, how Mahinda wants to leave Ceylon, because there are no relics to be worshipped. The king, however, asks him to remain. He may send for relics to India, and the king promises to build a stūpa over them. Sumana repairs to India, where he receives relics, and thence to Indra's palace, where the Buddha's right collar-bone (dakkhinakkhaka) is handed over to him. With this he returns to Ceylon, and the relic is placed on the frontal globe (Dīpavamsa) or the back (Mahāvamsa) of the state elephant, who roars, while the earth quakes.

We here evidently have a description of the scene depicted in the relievo. The legend about the fetching of the collar-bone relic has not hitherto been traced outside of Ceylon. We know, however, that the Aṭṭhakathā, on which the Simhalese chronicles are based, to a great extent drew on Indian sources. And the Mathurā inscription and sculpture show that such has been the case with the legend about the collar-bone relic.

On the other hand, we cannot state that the legend was localized in Mathura. The

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Aus Indiens Kultur. Festgabe Richard von Garbe dargebracht, Erlangen, 1927, pp. 33 ff.

stone is small and can easily have been brought to the place where it was found from outside, e.g. from the north-west. And, if we bear in mind the fact that Kharoshthī never seems to have found a home in Mathura, we become inclined to think that such has been the case.

# TEXT Sastakhadhatu

# TRANSLATION The collar-bone relic of the Lord.

## XVII. PLATE X. 2: BIMARAN VASE INSCRIPTION

Bimaran is a small village six to seven miles west-north-west of Jalalabad, which was explored in the years 1834-37 by M. Masson. There was a big stupa in the centre of the village and smaller stupas in the immediate neighbourhood.

In one of them, numbered 2 by Masson, a relic-chamber was excavated, which contained a steatite vase inscribed with Kharoshthi letters. Within the vase were found some pearls and beads and a gold casket decorated with relics, and together with the vase four copper coins.1

The coins, which were the only coins found in the stupa, belong to the Azes coins with the legend maharajasa mahatasa dhramikasa rajatirajasa Ayasa, and they have usually been taken to imply that the vase was deposited in the days of Azes, though they only prove, as pointed out by M. Foucher,2 that the reliquary is not older than Azes. The relief figures on the gold casket, representing the Buddha between Indra and Brahmā, on the other hand, are stated by the said scholar to show that the vase is at all events older than the Kanishka casket. A priori there does not seem to be any objection to assigning it to the times of Azes.

A reproduction of the inscriptions, in inverted order, was published by James Prinsep<sup>3</sup> and corrected in H. T. Prinsep's republication of the engraving.4

Then came H. H. Wilson's publication mentioned above, remarks by J. Bird, and editions by Cunningham and Dawson.7

A new edition, with excellent plates, was finally contributed by Mr. Pargiter.8

The vase, which is now in the British Museum, is inscribed both on the lid and round the body of the vase, but the two inscriptions are, as recognized by Cunningham, practically identical.

The characters are, on the whole, well cut, though Mr. Pargiter is no doubt right, when he states that the scratching tool has slipped in some places and distorted some of them.

- <sup>1</sup> Cf. II. II. Wilson, Ariana Antiqua, pp. 69 ff., with plate II after p. 54, and a tentative reading of the in-cription on p. 259, where the vase is erroneously stated to have come from Hidda. This mistaken statement is repeated by E. Burnouf, Introduction à l'histoire du Bouddhisme Indien, Paris, 1844, p. 348; Lassen, Indische Alterthumskunde, ii, 1852, p. 11783 (2nd edition, p. 11923).
  - <sup>2</sup> L'art gréco-bouddhique du Gandhâra, ii, p. 478.
- JASB, iii, 1834, pl. VI; reproduced, with an attempt at reading the record by E. Thomas in his edition of Prinsep's Essays on Indian Antiquities, vol. i, pp. 105 ff. and plate VI.
  - Note on the Historical results deducible from recent discoveries in Afghanistan, London, 1844.
- Historical Researches on the Origin and Principles of the Banddha and Jaina Religions. Bombay, 1847, p. 63. <sup>6</sup> JASB, xxiii, 1854, pp. 707 f.
- <sup>7</sup> JRAS, xx, 1863, pp. 241 ff., and plate III (opp. p. 222); cf. also Senart, JA, VIII, xv, 1890, p. 133; 1X, iv. 1894, p. 514; Majumdar, List, no. 3. <sup>8</sup> *Ep. Ind.*, xvi, pp. 97 ff.

They make the impression of being fairly old. We may note the ya, which has an angular top but a bend in the middle of the left leg. Similar forms are found on the Lion Capital and in Kāldarra. The sa seems to be a cursive form of the old sa with the leg continued upwards towards the head-curve. The nearest parallels are again found on the Lion Capital. Most characteristic is apparently the anteconsonantic r in sarva, which again reminds us of the Lion Capital and seems to be distinctly older than the shape found on the Taxila scroll and apparently also than those of the Takhti-Bāhī and Pājā records.

From the point of view of palaeography there does not seem to be any objection to a dating of the Bimaran vase as about contemporaneous with the Mathura Lion Capital. And there are also two orthographical features which remind us of the latter. Intervocalic t is always written tr, except in mu(m)javada and miyadide, where it has become d, and intervocalic g is written gr, where the Capital has kr. It is probable, as mentioned in connexion with the Lion Capital, that the sounds intended were fricatives, and I shall transliterate t(r), g(r), respectively. Mr. Pargiter reads t, g, respectively.

There are, as already stated, two inscriptions, one round the body of the vase and another one on the lid. They are, however, evidently only two copies of the same record, and it seems probable that the latter has been written after, and probably copied from, the former. The engraver was then aware of the insufficiency of the space available on the lid, and therefore began with the most important part of the record, which could not be missed, adding so much of the remainder as he could. In doing so he seems to have misread the name of the donor's tribe.

I therefore begin with the longer inscription round the vase, which I read as Sivarakshit(r)asa Mu(m)javadaputrasa danamuhe niyadide Bhag(r)avat(r)a sarirchi sarvabudha[na] puyae.

The apparent anusvāra of *Munijavada* is turned backwards and perhaps only a slip of the engraver's tool. On the lid it is turned the other way and has, accordingly, been taken to represent an anusvāra. Here also the ensuing va has been misdrawn and made into a nam. Mr. Pargiter thinks that the apparent nam is a defective vam, where the top has been omitted. There is, however, a backward bend of the vertical, so that nam is certain. Munijananda might be Munijananda, but such a name is not known to exist. Mujavada or Munijavada would represent Skr. mūjavad or mujavanda, and be a well-known word. A tribe called Mūjavad is mentioned in the Atharvaveda together with north-western ethnics such as Balliika and Gandhari, and I have little doubt that this word is meant in our record. If the anusvāra after u was actually heard, we have before us the nasalization of a long vowel which is a well-known feature in Indo-Aryan vernaculars. Mujavadaputra or Munijavadaputra would accordingly mean not 'the son of Mūjavat', but 'the Mūjavat scion', 'an individual of the Mūjavantas'. Cf. the terms sahayara, sahaya used in other inscriptions. I think that this explanation is the right one and infer that the legend on the lid is a mechanical and faulty copy of the main inscription.

The r-stroke in putrasa is defaced. It may have joined the  $\ell$  in a sharper angle than in Sivarakshitrasa, and I shall write  $\ell[r]a$  and not  $\ell(r)a$ .

Danamuhe is evidently the nominative and not the locative, for other inscriptions have danamukho. The h tends to show that muha does not stand for mukhya, as suggested by Mr. Pargiter. Moreover, we find in Pali danamukha. The meaning of the word has been discussed by Messrs. Senart, Thomas, Pargiter, and Majumdar.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JA, VIII, xv, 1890, pp. 132 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> l. c.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JRAS, 1915, pp. 97 ff.

<sup>4</sup> JPASB, xviii. 1922, pp. 62 ff.

The last mentioned scholar quotes the Pāli idioms dānamukhe datvā, dānamukhe vissajetva, where we still seem to feel an older and fuller meaning 'under the head of alms'. But I agree with Messrs. Senart, Thomas, and Majumdar that, in Kharoshṭhī inscriptions, no difference can be made between dāna and dānamukha.

For *niyadide* M. Senart proposes to read *niyalitain* and M. Pargiter reads *niyalide*, adding that the *ti* is provided with the otiose *r*-stroke. I cannot see any trace of the latter, but I admit that it is possible to read *ti*.

The form sarirchi was explained by Mr. Pargiter as an instrumental plural, 'with relics of the Lord'. That explanation is perhaps the right one. There is, however, one objection. We have no a priori right to assume that Sivarakshita did more than to give the vase. The relics may have been older, and the same may have been the case with the gold casket. It therefore seems possible that sarirchi is a dative, of the same kind as similar forms which have been discussed by Pandit Surendranath Majumdar. The use of the word ni-yat, cf. nir-yat, which often means 'to restore', seems to add strength to this explanation. The case may have been similar to what is recorded in the Patika plate, where we hear about relics which had not been properly deposited (apratithavita) and were subsequently enshrined.

We do not know who Sivarakshita was. We know a person of the same name from the Shahdaur inscription, and the name Sivarakshita is found on a seal from Taxila, but we have no materials for judging of the identity or non-identity of these persons.

The inscription on the lid is, as already stated, shorter, and omits the final blessing. It looks as if it begins with the word bhag(r)avat(r)a, but I have already tried to explain why such is the case. The execution is less careful than in the main inscription. I have already drawn attention to the writing Muinjanainda for Mu[m]javada. We may further note the misdrawn bha and da in Bhag(r)avat(r)a and danamuhe.

My reading of the main inscription is, accordingly, as follows:

#### TEXT

Sivarakshit(r)asa Mu[m]javadaput[r]asa danamuhe niyadide Bhag(r)avat(r)a sarirehi sarvabudha[na] puyae.

#### TRANSLATION

Gift of Śivarakshita, the Mūjavat scion, given in substitution, for the relics of the Lord, in honour of all Buddhas.

The inscription on the lid runs:

### TEXT

Śivarakshit(r)asa Mumjanamdaputrasa danamuhe bhag(r)avat(r)a śarirehi.

#### TRANSLATION

Gift of Śivarakshita, the Mūjavat scion, for the relics of the Lord.

### XVIII. PLATE XI. 1: KALA SANG INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 100 (?)

Kala Sang is a hillock belonging to the Mahāban system in the territory of the Khudu Khels of the Yusufzāi border. Here a stone bearing a Kharoshṭhī inscription was found lying on the hill-side near Cherorai. It is now in the Lahore Museum, where it bears the number I. 59.

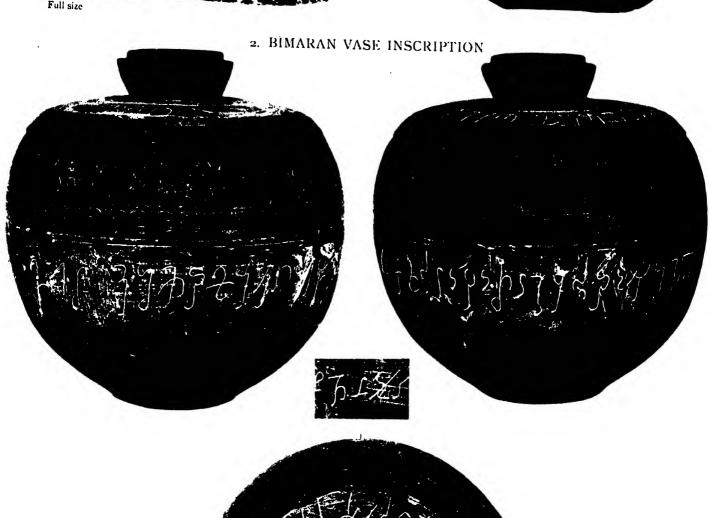
The stone measures 1 ft. 10 in.  $\times$  6\frac{3}{4} in., and the inscription covers 1 ft. 4 in., while the size of individual letters is from 1 to 1\frac{1}{4} in.

<sup>1</sup> Sir Asutosh Mukherjee Silver Jubilee Volumes, III, ii, 1925, pp. 31 ff.











Copies of the inscription were forwarded by Sir Harold Deane to M. Émile Senart, who published and translated it in 1894.

The inscription is incomplete, the stone being only a fragment, and the portion containing the beginning of the record has not been found.

The characters are almost of the same kind as in the Mount Banj inscription of the year 102. Cf. the letters ku, kh, p, and y. Ku is perhaps a little more advanced, the top-stroke being continued without a break in the right-hand hook. The shape of  $\ell$  and s is of the same cursive kind as on the Mathurā Lion Capital. Palaeographical considerations on the whole seem to assign the record to about the same time as the Mount Banj epigraph.

The first three aksharas were read yavaṇa by M. Senart and yataṇa by Mr. Majumdar. The second cannot be va, because the top-stroke is distinctly bent upwards. Nor can it be ta, the leg being too long and too straight. We must read ra, and a comparison of the Muchai inscription shows that we must restore sahayaraṇa.

The ensuing Pipalakhaa was explained by M. Senart as representing Skr. pippalakshaya, and it is hardly possible to avoid thinking of pippala, which occurs both as a common noun and as the name of a person and of a Vedic school. From the same word is formed Pippalada, the name of a school of the Atharvaveda, which we know from the neighbouring Kashmir. One might think of explaining -khaa as representing Skr. khada and seeing in pipalakhaa a synonym of pippalada, but we are scarcely justified in assuming the dropping of an intervocalic d, provided that the word does not belong to another dialect than the usual one in Kharoshṭhī inscriptions. The only thing which we can say for certain is that pipalakhaa is a nearer characterization of the 'companions', sahacharas. And it is worthy of notice that similar characterizing additions in other inscriptions are just as difficult to explain. It is impossible to follow Mr. Majumdar in thinking of the name of an individual used in the plural.

The next word was read bhuho by M. Senart, just as in the Mount Banj inscription, while Mr. Majumdar reads kue. The first akshara is certainly ku, but the second cannot well be e, because the supposed e-stroke is turned downwards. It looks like the ho of the Mathurā Lion Capital, but I have little doubt that we must read o, though the shape is irregular, the bottom of the vertical being bent backwards and the o-stroke being added at an unusual angle. A slight backward bend of the vertical is, however, also noticeable in the Mount Banj and Taxila silver scroll inscriptions. Besides, there can hardly be any doubt that the word in question corresponds to Skr. kūpaḥ, and, to judge from the inscription found at the neighbouring Mount Banj, the nominative of masculine a-bases in the Mahāban country ended in o.

The next word was read eduka by M. Senart, while Mr. Majumdar read lajua, which he explained as rajjuka. The first letter is very different from la in pipala-, which has a straight vertical and a regular curve of the projecting portion. If we abstract from the top-stroke, our akshara is almost identical with the a of -khaa, and I therefore accept M. Senart's reading e. But then we are able to state with confidence that the preceding akshara is not e, as assumed by Mr. Majumdar.

I also agree with M. Senart in reading the second akshara as du.  $\mathcal{F}a$  has always a sharp angle in old records, and it is not till in the Wardak vase that we find the rounded form which Mr. Majumdar's reading presupposes.

The third akshara is peculiar. We have a similar ka in the Shakardarra inscription, but I do not think that it is possible to read so in our record, because ka in kuo is too different.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JA, IX. iv, 1894, pp. 516 f., with plate v, no. 36; cf. Majumdar, List, no. 21.

It seems to me that we have to do with the same akshara as the last in the word I have read kuo, so that coluo should be read, and this coluo must probably be explained as an adjective qualifying kuo. I have little doubt that M. Senart was right in comparing the word edūka. But unfortunately we do not exactly know what it means. In Mārkandeya's account to Yudhishthira about the coming depravation of the Kali yuga we read (Mah. III, 190. 65 = 13074) how people are going to worship edūkas, abandoning the devatās: edūkan pūjayishyanti varjayishyanti devatāh, and two stanzas further on how the earth is going to be marked by edūkas and not to be adorned with temples of the gods: edūkachihna prithivi na devagrihabhūshitā. In the commentary we find edūkāh explained as asthyankitani kudyani, walls marked with bones. This explanation is taken from the lexicographers, who give various explanations containing words such as asthi, kīkasa. Thus Amara II, ii, 4 says that a wall (kudya) is said to be edūka if it is antarnyastakīkasa, studded with bones, or, with bones inserted into it. In Maheśvara's commentary this is explained by saying that the bones are applied for the purpose of strengthening the wall, dardhyartham. The Sabdakalpadruma also gives other explanations: kikasam iva kīkasam yat kudyam chhitavera īti khyatam ity anye, iti Sārasundarī. Kīkasam asthi etat kashthadikathinadravyopalakshanam, kikasam iva kikasam, kilinchaditi Madhuh. Eduka is accordingly a wall into which 'bones', i.e. planks, boards, or other hard objects have been inserted.

Sir Aurel Stein describes the old well 14 miles to the east-south-east of Jhanda village in the Mahāban country as follows: 1 'The masonry lining is of the fashion peculiar to the pre-Muhammadan buildings of Gandhara and Udyana, but remarkably regular, and by far the most finished of its kind I have seen anywhere. It shows a succession of double courses. The upper one consists of roughly square blocks, circ. 7 inches high and varying in length from 8 to 11 inches, with neatly packed columns, formed of small flat stones and circ. 4 inches broad, separating each block from its neighbour in the same course, &c.' So far as I can see, this description shows what is meant with a kūpa edūka. It is a well of stones, separated by flat uprights, and I shall tentatively translate 'an intersected well'.

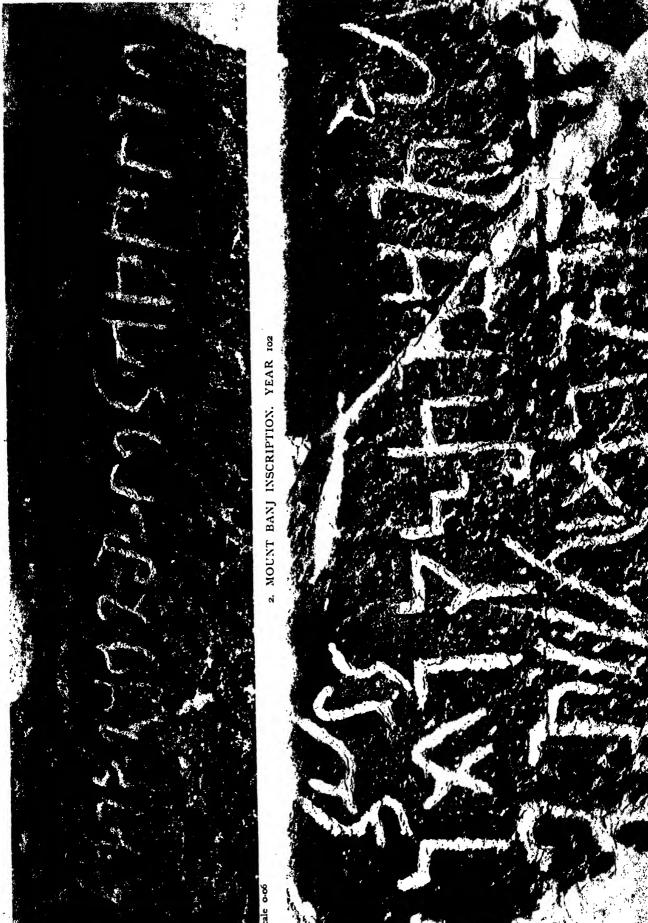
After equo M. Senart read savañasa, Skr. sarvajñasya, but stated that an examination of the plate does not quite favour this reading. Mr. Majumdar read Sava..sa, of the (rajjuka) Sava... The first akshara has, however, a distinct rounding of the bottom, so that it seems natural to read sain. The second seems to be va, and sainva may be an unusual abbreviation of sainvalsare. The third one can perhaps be compared with the first numeral figure of the date in the Loriyān Tangai inscription, preceded by the numeral 1. I am therefore inclined to think that we have to do with a misshapen 100. The last sign I cannot identify. It may be a sign of the same kind as the unidentified signs after the figures in the Fatehjang and Muchai inscriptions. With every reserve I therefore read sainva 1 100, in which case our record would be two years earlier than the Mount Banj inscription.

# TEXT

[saha\*]yaraṇa Pipalakhaaṇa kuo eḍuo sa[ṁ]va 1(?) 100 (?) . (?)

#### TRANSLATION

Of the Pipalakhaa companions, this intersected well. Anno 100 (?).



I. KALA SANG INSCRIPTION



# XIX. PLATE XI. 2: MOUNT BANJ INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 102

A description of Mount Banj has been published by Sir Aurel Stein, who surveyed the Mahāban range and the adjoining country in the autumn of 1904.

From the culminating height of Mount Banj a spur runs east-south-east and strikes the Indus just above the large Utmanzai village of Khabal. Further to the north there is another spur, almost parallel to it, and running east down to the Indus. Between these spurs lies a valley, 'about two miles broad from crest to crest and drained by the stream of Khabal. In its lower portion this valley is nothing but a deep-cut narrow ravine between precipitous rocky slopes rising up from the boulder-filled bed of the stream. But at its head the enclosing slopes are somewhat easier and form a kind of mountain amphitheatre'. Here Sir Aurel found 'an ancient well, 3 feet square, built of large roughly cut slabs with columns of small flat pieces in the interstices. It still is the main source of water supply for the hamlet' of Banj.

This is probably the find-place of a slab bearing a Kharoshṭhī inscription, which was brought to Sir Harold Deane as found at Mount Banj. Estampages were forwarded to M. Senart, who published the inscription with a plate.<sup>2</sup> A new edition is due to Mr. N. G. Majumdar.<sup>3</sup>

The slab is now in the Lahore Museum, bearing the number 1.42. It measures 1 ft. 6 in.  $\times$  9\frac{3}{4} in., the inscribed portion covering 1 ft. 4 in.  $\times$  8 in.

The characters are pre-Kushāṇa Kharoshṭhī, and the size of individual letters varies between  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. and 3 in. We may note the *kha* without any backward bend of the top; the broad angular ya and the distinct, forward prolongation of the leg of sa, which is almost identical with the sa of the Patika record.

The first line of the inscription contains only one word, written in the left corner. It was read danamukho by M. Senart and danamukho by Mr. Majumdar. The third akshara is, however, not quite certain. It looks like the mo of the Patika, Mathurā Lion Capital, Kanhiāra, and Ārā inscriptions. The o vowel-stroke is, however, usually longer. We find exactly analogous forms of the third akshara of the word danamukha in the Yākubi and Ghaz Pherī inscriptions. If we consider the varying shapes of the akshara mu, it will be seen that the n-mātrā usually is a short stroke added at the left extremity of the letter, as in the Patika plate, and that the right leg rises above the line. In the Kurram casket, where the akshara is made square, the n-stroke is, however, added to the bottom, and the left leg rises above it. It seems to be the same form which is used in our record and also in the Yākubi and Ghaz Pherī inscriptions, and I therefore accept the reading danam[n]kho.

L. 2 begins with ma, surmounted by a small hook above the left top. I cannot explain this hook. One might think that it denotes the long  $\ddot{a}$ , but then the a-mātrā after m is marked differently in the Niya documents, where we have certain instances of a  $m\ddot{a}$ , viz. by means of a dash below the letter. In the Sui Vihār and Ārā records we find a short stroke crossing the right leg of ma, which does not seem to admit of any explanation. It may be surmised that all these signs are meant to mark the beginning of the record. In the case of our inscription such an inference may be strengthened by

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASIFC, 1904-5, pp. 33 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JA, IX, iv, pp. 513 ff., with plate v, no. 35.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> J&PASB, xviii, 1922, pp. 65 ff., with plate v; cf. his List, no. 34.

<sup>4</sup> See Stein, Serindia, plate XXIV.

the consideration that l. 1 does not, as usual, begin at the right extremity. The word danamukha is, moreover, never used as the opening word of any other Kharoshthī inscription.

I therefore take the record to begin with l. 2 and the first akshara of that line to be simply ma. Then follows kadakaputrasa. There are some irregular strokes and dashes on both sides of the upright of the second akshara, but they are too little pronounced to be intended, so that we have not sufficient reason for reading markadakaputrasa. M. Senart compared markadaka with Skr. markanda, mārkandeya. We might also think of markataka, which is used with more than one meaning: a species of grain; an ape; a spider; a kind of fish, and, a Daitya. At all events the word is evidently a personal designation, but I fail to see why Mr. Majumdar thinks that it sounds like a foreign name.

Then follows vayira, after which Mr. Majumdar adds sa. There are, however, no traces of any akshara following after ra, which, moreover, stands exactly above the last akshara of l. 3. If makadaka is the name of an individual person, we should certainly expect another name to individualize his son. But even so it would not be strictly necessary. And makadaka may be the designation of a locality or association, and putra be used in the same way as in rajaputra, devaputra, &c., to denote a member of an individual group or clan, in which case the Makadaka-son would be a member of the association or clan of the Makadakas.

Vayira must then evidently be connected with the opening of 1. 3, which M. Senart left unread, while Mr. Majumdar read thuve. Only parts of the first akshara remain, viz. a short top-stroke, the upper part of a vertical, and traces of a horizontal projecting towards the left and perhaps crossing the vertical. The thick line to the right, joining the vertical in a curve and continuing downwards, which is seen in the plate, does not belong to the akshara, but is simply the edge of the stone. A careful inspection of the original has made me inclined to accept Mr. Majumdar's  $\mathcal{U}[u]$ , though  $\mathcal{U}[u]$  would also be possible. The bottom of the akshara and the *u*-mātrā have been broken off.

The second akshara cannot be anything else than ve, though the e-stroke is very faint. Varirathure would correspond to Skr. Vajrastūpe, but I do not know of any such designation in Buddhist literature. Sir Aurel Stein has shown that the Mount Banj remains represent the site where the Chinese pilgrims located the incident in the career of the Bodhisattva, when he gave up his body to feed a hungry tigress. The pilgrims speak about a stone stupa at this spot and state that 'the soil as well as the herbs and shrubs show a light reddish colour as if blood-dyed. When people dig the earth, they feel as if pricked by thorns. All, whether sceptics or believers, are moved to feelings of sorrow and pain'. We also read about another stūpa to the north, about 200 feet high, which had been built by King Aśoka and was adorned with sculptures and of artistic construction, and which at all times shed a divine light. Either of these may have been the Vajrastūpa, which may mean a stūpa containing or connected with a vajra, or resembling a vajra in shape or splendour, or built by some person called Vajra or Vajrā.

After  $[thu]_{cc}$  follows sainvatšarayc. It will be seen that the compound tša is a little irregular, in so far as the upper horizontal protrudes to the right of the vertical, which, in its turn, is continued in a straight line up to the horizontal.

Then follow the numerical symbols 1, 100, 1, 1, i. e. 102, and a word, which M. Senart read blubo and explained as possibly standing for bhu[ti] ho[tu]. Mr. Majumdar read bhuo, which he took to represent Skr. bhūtah. In his List, however, he accepts my reading, which is kuo, Skr.  $k\bar{u}\rho ah$ . There can be no question about reading the first akshara as bhu, because the top-stroke does not project to the right of the vertical. The

shape differs slightly from that of ka in 1, 2, the right-hand hook being more rounded and joining the vertical higher up. We have, however, found more examples of slight irregularities in this record.

We thus arrive at the following text and translation:

#### TEXT

- L. 3 Makadakaputrasa Vayira-
  - 2 [thu]ve samvatšaraye i 100 i i kuo
  - 1 danam[u]kho.

#### TRANSLATION

Of the Makadaka scion, in the Vajrastūpa, in the year 102, (this) well (is) the gift.

# XX. PLATE XII. 1: THE SO-CALLED TAKHT-I-BĀHĪ INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 103

No. I. 1 of the Lahore Museum is a stone, measuring 17 in. by 14½ in., and bearing a Kharoshṭhī inscription in six lines. There is some uncertainty about its provenance. Cunningham originally stated ¹ that it had been discovered by Dr. Bellew at Shahbazgaṛhī, but later on always spoke of it as hailing from Takht i-Bāhī, and the epigraph has usually been spoken of as the Takht-i-Bahi inscription.

Both places are situated in the same neighbourhood, Shāhbazgarhi 6½ miles east and Takht-i-Bāhī about 8 miles west of Mardān in Yusufzāi.

The editor of Trübner's Record states that Dr. Bellew had left the stone in Hoti Mardan, 'in Dr. Johnson's compound. Several years afterwards, in 1870, he authorized Dr. Leitner to take away anything he might have left at Hoti Mardan. Dr. Leitner, after personal inspection, had the stone carried down to Lahore by bullock-cart, and there had the inscription both lithographed and photographed. The discovery of the stone therefore belongs to Dr. Bellew, that of the inscription to Dr. Leitner'.

A rubbing of the inscription was forwarded by Dr. Leitner to Professor Dowson, who gave a notice of it in Trübner's Record.\* Then follows the notice by Cunningham, mentioned above, in Trübner's Record, June 1873, and a fuller notice by Dowson,\* who read the date portion, which he again <sup>1</sup> reproduced in a new note two years afterwards. New editions were published by Cunningham,<sup>5</sup> Senart,\* Boyer,\* and myself.\*

Cunningham remarks that 'as the stone has been used for many years, perhaps for centuries, for the grinding of spices, all the middle part of the inscription has suffered and become indistinct, and some portions have been obliterated altogether'. The reading and interpretation are consequently in some places beset with difficulties.

The inscribed portion covers  $15\frac{1}{2}$  in, by  $12\frac{1}{2}$  in, and the size of individual letters varies from  $\frac{1}{2}$  in, to  $1\frac{3}{4}$  in. There is apparently a gap after the seventh akshara of l, l, but nothing has been lost, the gap having been left without any writing on account of the roughness of the stone. There is a similar vacant space in the middle of l, l.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Trübner's Record, June 1873, reprinted Ind. Ant., ii, 1873, p. 242.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> June 1871, not accessible to me.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> JRAS, New Scries, vii, 1875, pp. 376 ff., with plate.

<sup>4</sup> Ibidem, ix, 1877, pp. 144 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> ASI, v, 1875, pp. 58 ff., with plate xvi, no. 3. <sup>6</sup> JA, viii, xv, 1890, pp. 114 ff., with plate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> JA, x, iii, 1904, pp. 457 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Ep. Ind., xviii, pp. 261 ff.; cf. SBAW, 1916, pp. 800 ff., and Majumdar's List, no. 66.

The alphabet is Kharoshthī of a comparatively old type. Kha is without the backward bend of the top and is almost identical with the kha of the Swat vase. shadhadana, l. 4, is similar to the da of the Patika plate, while di is upright as in the Pājā inscription. Ba has the old curvilinear shape with a deep indenture. Ya in maharayasa, l. 1, has the old broad and angular shape, but elsewhere the top is rounded as in somewhat later records, and the left leg is shortened. Sa is like the sa of the Lion Capital, and sa is usually devoid of the upward prolongation of the leg, as is also commonly the case in the last-mentioned record. In Guduvharasa, l. 1, however, the prolongation is distinct.

L. I has never presented any serious difficulty and runs: maharayasa Guduvharasa vasha 20 4 1 1, where vasha probably stands for vashe, though no trace of the e-stroke is now visible. Dowson read the second akshara of the king's name as nu, but a comparison of du in madu, 1. 5, and pidu, 1. 6, shows that it is du. Nor can there be any doubt about the identity of the mahārāja Guduvhara. He is certainly identical with the Parthian ruler whom we know from numerous coins, and from Christian legends as the king to whom the apostle Thomas came. On his coins Guduvhara uses different titles, the lowest being maharaja and the highest maharaja rajatiraja or maharaja rajaraja. We have no right to infer that the use of the lower title in our inscription points to an early stage of his reign. On the other hand, there is nothing which militates against such an assumption.

L. 2. The first word was read sain... by Cunningham and sainvatsarasa by Dowson. E. Thomas 1 demurred to Dowson's reading, without, however, suggesting any alternative. Messrs. Senart and Boyer read sambadhae, 'of the continuous reckoning'. There cannot, however, be any doubt that Professor Thomas was right 2 in reading sambatsarae.

The next word is tisatimae, for which M. Senart read tisatamae. The reading is absolutely certain, and also supported by the forms satimage, satimae, in the Pājā and Skārah Dherī inscriptions. Then follow the numerical symbols 1 100 1 1 1, i.e. 103.

We thus have two different dates after the name of the mahārāja Guduvhara, one in the 26th year (varsha), the other in the 103rd year (sambatsara). We have no reason for attaching any importance to the use of different words for 'year', and for assuming that the first date refers to a reckoning where the year begins with the rains. Nor is there anything in the wording of the two dates which points to a difference of the connexion existing between the royal name and either of the two dates. What stands there is simply 'of, i.e. during the reign of, the mahārāja Guduvhara, in the year 26, in the one hundred and third-103.-year'. And that can mean that the inscription was drawn up in the 26th year of Guduvhara's reign or of some unidentified era, and in the 103rd year of another era, which latter is evidently the same as is used in the Shahdaur, Mānsehrā, Fatehjang, Mount Banj and other old Kharoshthi records. It has been usual to assume that our inscription has been dated in the 26th year of the reign of Guduvhara. The consequence has been that it has become necessary to separate one Kharoshthī inscription, viz. that on the Taxila copper-plate of the year 78, from all the rest and refer its date to a separate era of its own. For if Guduvhara's 26th year coincided with the year 103 of the other era, his first year would be the year 103 - 26, i.e. 77, and then the Taxila plate of the year 78, which is referred to the reign of the Mahārāja Moga, cannot belong to the same era. For we know that Moga was succeeded in Taxila by Guduvhara's predecessor Azes, and Guduvhara could not, therefore, have been on the throne one year before the date of the Taxila plate, when Moga was still reigning. I have there-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JRAS, New Series, ix, 1877, p. 10 footnote.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JRAS, 1913, p. 636<sup>3</sup>.

fore 1 referred the first date of the Takht-i-Bāhī inscription to a Parthian era instituted by Azes, and I still think that this is the correct explanation of our record.

The remaining words of l. 2 are Vešakhasa masasa divase, as has always been recognized.

L. 3 ff. were not read by Dowson, and Cunningham only tried to make out some few words. M. Senart gave a transliteration of the greater part of them, and M. Boyer of the whole.

The first word of 1. 3 was read painchame by the two French scholars, who further took the ensuing sign to be pa, which according to M. Senart is the sign for the figure 5. Mr. Majumdar in his List suggests to read athama.

A comparison of the certain instances of pa in ll. 4 and 5 makes it almost certain that the first akshara is pa. There is no trace of an anusvāra, but there are some strokes at the bottom which may represent an r-stroke. I therefore read p[r]a. The second letter consists of a vertical bent towards the left at the top, and a stroke projecting to the left lower down, which perhaps crosses the vertical. I have formerly read tha, but the bend of the top is too pronounced to be accidental. Nor is that likely, because the vertical does not show the indenture which is visible in the that of 1.4. The nearest approach to our letter is the akshara which I have read that in 1.3 of the Mount Banj inscription. I therefore accept Mr. Majumdar's that. In the third letter the e-mātrā seems to be certain. I consequently read p[r]athame.

The explanation of the ensuing sign as the figure 5 is hardly possible, the Kharoshthī signs for 5 being a St. Andrew's cross and a single stroke. What we can see is a hook, which may be the beginning of a pa, but also a damaged di, and a long vertical. I have therefore suggested to read di 1, cf. divase athami di 8 in the Und inscription.

The next aksharas are badly defaced and cannot be restored with certainty. M. Senart read . . . . pade and M. Boyer iša kshunami samana.

The first akshara consists of an upright, which is perhaps curving forwards at the top, so that we may think of an a. It is provided with two strokes, one running straight out to the right, and the other obliquely from the joining point of the other one. If the former was originally continued to the left of the upright and the latter is due to later grinding, we should have an i; if the straight horizontal is a later addition, we must read e, and if both are later, we have an a. The second akshara may be a, though it is more rounded and has shorter legs than the a of a of a of a of a of the right leg is, moreover, rounded forwards at the bottom, but this inward bend seems to be the result of the grinding of later times. Then there are faint traces of a continuation of the right leg in a forward slope, and at the end of this continuation indications of what might be a a-stroke. Finally there is a faint line running in a rounded angle upwards from the left termination of the horizontal. It is therefore possible that the left vertical does not belong to the letter but forms part of the next akshara, in which case we should have to read a of the left vertical does not belong to

Then comes a long vertical with a hook projecting to the right from the lower part and traces of a short stroke sloping forward to the left. M. Boyer read kshu, but there are no traces of the upper curve of ksha, and the vertical seems to run too high up. I have proposed to restore di, but this is just as uncertain. If the preceding short vertical belongs to this akshara and not to the preceding one, we might think of reading pa or pu. Then comes a short vertical continued upwards in a long curved line. M. Boyer read na, and I have suggested to read ne. If the lower vertical was originally continued upwards, which seems to be possible, it would be possible to think of na.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Acta Orientalia, iii, pp. 60.

Then we have a small forward hook, which M. Boyer took to be the remains of a mi, but which I follow M. Senart in connecting with the ensuing upright and reading pa. M. Boyer saw a sa in this upright, but the straight top seems to be too distinct. What follows was read de by M. Senart and mana by M. Boyer, who explained samana as representing Skr. sramana. For sramana, however, we could only have sramana or shamana. And besides, what M. Boyer read as mana is evidently kshe.

So far as I can see, the only certain thing is that the last word is pakshe, which must be Skr. pakshe or pakshe. With regard to the preceding words we are entirely left to guess. We might think of isa kshune (or dine) pakshe, on this paksha-day, or of etra (or atra) puñapakshe, at this auspicious paksha, wherewith it would be natural to think of the tradition according to which the 1st Vaisākha was the birthday of the Buddha. But we shall have to confess that the passage cannot be restored with anything approaching to certainty.

Then follow five aksharas, which M. Boyer read belasamisa, remarking that the e of be may be a flaw in the stone. It seems to me that such must be the case. The final portion is quite clear, and I therefore read balasamisa, which seems to be the genitive of a name, probably corresponding to Skr. Balasvāmin. Professor Thomas¹ thinks that we ought probably to read mira for misa and compares Mira boyanasa 1. 4, but the sa is certain.

The last aksharas of l. 3 were read as goyanasa by the two French scholars, and M. Boyer explained goyana as Skr. goyāna, a bullock-car, drawing the last akshara sa to l. 4. There cannot, however, be much doubt that Professor Thomas was right in reading boyaṇasa, the same word which occurs at the end of l. 4, where we read miraboyaṇasa. This is evidently a name, which M. Boyer has compared with the Iranian Midpoβovζάνηs. Boyaṇasa in l. 3 must contain the same boyaṇa and be connected with the preceding Balasamisa, so that there cannot be any question of drawing the final sa to the ensuing line. Boyaṇa is evidently an adjective or participle formed with the suffix äna from a base boy, where y has been derived from a voiced sibilant, as shown by the Greek rendering in Midpoβovζáνηs. The base is therefore probably the Iranian bang, banj, to save, and boyaṇa has almost the same meaning as Greek σωτήρ, Prākrit tratara, which is common in coin-legends.

The first word of l. 4 was read pa.. aa by M. Senart, but M. Boyer was certainly right in reading par[i]vara, though the i-stroke of the second akshara is almost entirely obliterated and there is an apparent stroke protruding from the middle of the vertical. The latter is evidently not part of the akshara.

Parivara must be Skr. parivara, and I take the meaning of the word to be 'enclosure, enclosed hall, chapter, chapel'.

The next word was read yadha.. na by M. Senart and sadhadana by M. Boyer. So far as I can see the remains of the first akshara consist of a curve, which is different from the more square sa, but looks like the curve of sha, and faint traces of a vertical below. I therefore read shadhadana, which is exactly the form we should expect for Skr. sraddhadana or sraddhadana. M. Boyer was no doubt right in comparing Pāli saddhadeyya, Skr. śraddhādeya, a gift of faith, a pious gift. The dha shows an apparent hook to the right, which does not seem to form part of the original akshara. The upward bend of the bottom of da is probably only a continuation of the bottom-stroke, but might be an anusvāra.

Of the letters following after -dana M. Senart only read the two first, and those as sapa. M. Boyer read sapayasovadana, which he explained as Skr. saprajāsuvadanā

and took together with the last words of the line, miraboyanasa, translating the whole as 'together with his children  $(praj\bar{a})$  Suvadanā and Miraboyana'. He thinks that the curious letter before mira contains na and da, the latter having been added above, after the rest had been written, when there was no more space left in the line.

The first letter is certainly sa, but the second has a distinct u-loop at the bottom, so that we must evidently read pu. The third no doubt looks like the ya of puyae, ll. 5. 6, but there are distinct traces of an upright rising from the left-hand termination and of a bottom-stroke. I therefore read tra. Then comes a letter which does not seem to be sa, but rather looks like ve. There is, however, an indenture in the middle of the upright, and the apparent e-stroke seems to run down below the upper horizontal. I therefore feel justified in reading dhi, though the indenture in dha of shadhadana is much more pronounced. Then there are traces which point to a ta and a very distinct ra, which, however, runs into an akshara of peculiar shape, which had evidently been omitted, when the line was engraved, and was then inserted, in distorted form, after the mistake had been detected. I do not think that there can be much doubt that sa is intended, the less so because a similar sa is found at the end of the Zeda inscription. I therefore read saputradhitarasa.

L. 5. The first three letters were read ejhshuna by M. Boyer, while M. Senart only read the first and the third ones. The base of the second akshara is certainly jha. Then we have a curve across the leg, and I do not think that there can be any doubt that it is the ante-consonantic r, which has this shape in the Patika, the Lion Capital, and other old inscriptions, while the left termination usually joins the preceding akshara in a loop in later records. Below this curve there is a loop, which looks like the usual u-loop, and the most likely reading is, a priori, erjhuna. I have formerly thought it possible that the curve and the loop belong together, representing an intermediate stage between the old curve and the later curve with loop, so that we should read erjhana, but erjhuna seems to be the correct reading.

The word is evidently un-Indian. Jh is a rare sign in Kharoshthī, and when it occurs, it seems to represent the voiced s, which is usually transliterated as z. If we assume that the word sounded erzuṇa, we become tempted to identify it with the word  $alys\bar{a}nai$ , later  $eys\bar{a}nai$ , i. e. alzanai,  $ez\bar{a}nai$ , which is used in the old Saka language of the Khotan country in order to render Skr.  $kum\bar{a}ra$ . For we know that the Saka language used r for l throughout, only substituting l before certain sibilants as a later development. Saka  $alys\bar{a}nai$  therefore presupposes an older  $arz\bar{a}na$ ,  $arz\bar{a}naka$ , while the later form  $eys\bar{a}nai$  shows that the initial vowel tended towards an e. If erjhuṇa is the actual reading, the development of  $\bar{a}$  to u is parallel to the change of  $\bar{a}$  to u in kshuṇa, for which we find  $ksh\bar{a}na$  in Saka documents.

It seems to me that we have good reason for assuming that *erjhuna* is actually the Saka word, and consequently that we have to do with a prince of Saka extraction.

His name may be looked for in the aksharas following after erjhuna. M. Senart read them as kapa, and M. Boyer, who admitted that the first akshara looks like ka, suggested to read [bhu]pa. The ka is beyond doubt, the pa, on the other hand, seems to show faint traces of a curve crossing the pa and a prolongation of the vertical below the curve, so that I have proposed to read kap[sh]a, comparing this with the varying forms Kasa, Kaphsa, Kadapha, Kaü, Kapa, and Kapha occurring on the coin-legends of Kujūla Kadphises. The traces of a subscript sha are, however, so faint that I think that we must read kapa, the same form which the Chinese rendered as kio, i. e. in the pronunciation of the Tang period kivp.

. I have pointed out in the Historical Introduction that I cannot see any objection

to assuming that Kujūla Kadphises, whose coins show him to have succeeded the Guduvhara dynasty in Taxila, can have been mentioned as a prince in our inscription, which can very well belong to one of the very first years of Guduvhara and to a period when the Parthian dominion had not been pushed westward so far as Taxila or even as the Indus.

After Kapa follows a wide gap, which has never carried any writing, having been left open on account of the roughness of the stone, and then sa, which should be connected with Kapa.

The last words of the inscription are perfectly clear, viz. puyae madu in 1. 5 and pidu puya[e] in 1. 6. We may note the cursive shape of the ya in puyae, which almost looks like a, and the curious flourish after the final e. It looks like the flourish above the left top of the initial ma of the Mount Banj inscription, having only been turned the other way. I explain it in a similar way as in that record, where I took it to indicate the beginning of the inscription. Here it is evidently meant to mark the end. The final e itself is defaced, the head and the e-stroke being almost invisible.

We thus have a record dated during the reign of the Parthian ruler, the mahārāja Guduvhara, during the twenty-sixth year of an era which I take to commemorate the establishment of the dominion of the Parthians under Guduvhara's predecessor Azes, and further in the 103rd year of another era, which I identify with the old Saka era of the Shahdaur, Mānsehrā, Fatehjang, Patika, Mount Banj inscriptions, &c. It is further dated on the 1st of Vaiśākha, and according to Dr. van Wijk's calculation this date corresponds to the 10th March, A. D. 19.

At this time the Parthians were settled in part of the old Saka empire, notably in the country about Takht-i-Bāhī and Shāhbāzgaṛhī, which probably belonged to what the Chinese called Ki-pin. The era introduced by the Sakas, however, still remained in use, and a scion of one of the Saka tribes, the *erjhuṇa* Kapa, was a person of some consequence. *Erjhuṇa* Kapa may, or may not, simply mean 'the Kapiśa prince', as suggested by M. Lévi,¹ and the prince may or may not have acquired the position of hi-hou of Kuei-shuang. At all events it seems to me that we have to do with the same person who later on conquered the remaining hi-hous and then started on his career of conquest, which first led to victory over An-si, i. e. the Parthian empire of the Guduvhara dynasty, and subsequently to the Kushāṇa empire.

My reading and translation of the record are, therefore, as follows:

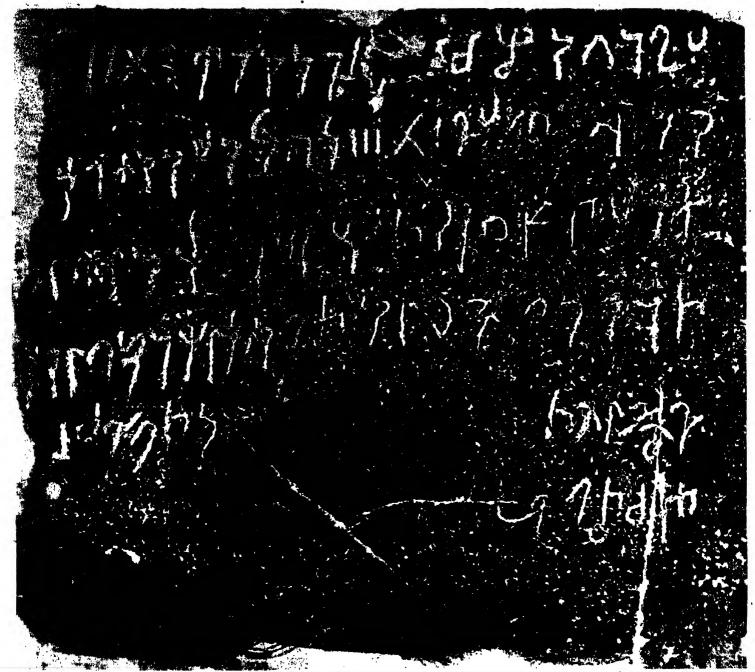
#### Text

- 1 maharayasa Guduvharasa vash[e\*] 20 4 1 1
- 2 sa[in]ba[tśarae ti]śatimae 1 100 1 1 1 Veśakhasa masasa divase
- 3 [pra]tham[e] [di 1 atra (iśa?) puña(dine, kshune?)pakshe] B[alasa]misa [Bo]yanasa
- 4 par[i]vara [sha]dhadana sapu[tradhitarasa] Mira Boyanasa
- 5 erjhuna Kapasa puyae madu
- 6 pidu puya[e].

#### TRANSLATION

(During the reign) of the mahārāja Guduvhara, in the 26. year, in the one-hundred-and-third, 103. year, on the first, 1., day of the month Vaiśākha, at this auspicious paksha (this) chapel (is) the religious gift of Balasami (Balasvāmin?) the Saviour, together with his son and daughter, in honour of Mira the Saviour (and) of Prince Kapa, in honour of mother and father.

1. TAKHT-I-BĀHĪ. YEAR 103



Scale 0.50

2. TAKHT-I-BĀHĪ IMAGE



Scale 0.50

3. TAKHT-I-BĀHĪ POTSHERD



Full size

## XXI-XXII. PLATE XII. 2-3: OTHER TAKHT-I-BĀHĪ INSCRIPTIONS

No. 1160 of the Peshāwar Museum is a damaged Buddha figure hailing from Takht-i-Bāhī.

On the back 'Dr. Vogel discovered an inscription in Kharoshthī, which he reads as *Horashadasa*. This name, which appears to be Iranian, may be that of the sculptor or donor of the statue'.

The four aksharas read as *Horashadasa* are, on an average, I in. high. The reading of the two first is far from being certain. The first may be ha or ho, a, i, or e, and the second may be ra or na or kha. I shall, however, not try to improve on Professor Vogel's reading. The word is at all events the genitive of the name of a person.

That this person was the donor, and not the sculptor, is evident from the traces of a second line, which are visible in the impressions. We see a distinct da, traces of a na, of a mu, and, apparently, also of a kha or khe, so that we can, with great confidence, restore danamukhe.

TEXT
L. 1 [Hora]shadasa
2 da[namukhe].

Translation
Gift of Horashada.

No. 444 of the Peshāwar Museum is a fragment of black pottery, apparently part of a large jar, which was probably intended to hold grain. On the outer face are inscribed seven Kharoshṭhī letters, each about  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. in height. They have been read by Professor Vogel 2 as sanighe chadudise ka..., and there cannot be the slightest doubt about the correctness of this reading. The last akshara ka may have been the beginning of the name of the donor of the jar, or, more probably, of the name of the sect to which the monastery belonged, as in the Taxila and Bedadi ladle inscriptions, where we have sanighe chadudise... Kasaviyana (respectively Kashyaviyana). Similar fragments of inscribed jars have been found at Pālātū Dherī and Sahr-i-Bahlol.

Техт saṁghe chadudiśe Ka . . .

Translation in the Samgha of the four quarters of . . .

### XXIII. PLATE XIII. 1: PĀJĀ INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 111

Pājā is the name of a ridge and a village between Jamālgarhī and Takht-i-Bāhī in Yusufzāi. About a quarter mile from the village a stone, measuring 6 ft. 5 in. by 1 ft. 4 in. and bearing a Kharoshṭhī inscription in two lines, has come to light, which Sir Harold Deane presented to the Lahore Museum, where it has been entered as I. 47.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Hargreaves, ASIFC, 1910-11, p. 4; Majumdar, List, Addenda (iv).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> See Hargreaves, ASIFC, 1910-11, p. 3; ASIAR, 1910-11, p. 34; Majumdar, List, no. 67.

The inscription has been edited by Mr. R. D. Banerji, and commented on by Lüders, Konow, and Majumdar.

The inscribed surface covers 4 ft. by 1 ft., and the size of individual letters varies from  $3\frac{1}{2}$  in. to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in.

Mr. Banerji describes the characters as belonging to the Kushāṇa type, but also draws attention to the archaic shape of sa, which usually has the angular head and the prolongation of the leg which are characteristic of the older group. And there cannot be any doubt that the palaeography of the record points to the Saka period. We may note the downward prolongation of the lower curve of cha, the angular ya, the upward prolongation of the leg of sa, and, on the other hand, the loop-shape of the preconsonantic r in sarva. The latter form also occurs in the Taxila silver-scroll of the year 136, and, on the whole, the characters can be described as intermediate between those of the Patika plate of the year 78 and that record.

L. 1 begins with the word sanivatsaraye. Messrs. Banerji and Majumdar read the third letter as tsa, evidently because the prolongation of the left leg of sa gives the left-hand part of the akshara a distinct similarity with a sa. But then there would not be any ta, and the right-hand part of the letter would be unexplained. In our akshara it is bent forward at the bottom and almost joins the middle of the front leg.

Then follows ckadasatimaye 1 100 10 1. There is a blurred bar across da, but it only represents an unevenness in the stone. Mr. Banerji explains ckada-satimaye as 'an Apabhransa of ckadasādhika-satamaye'. The ensuing numeral symbols show that the word means '111th', but the regular numeral for 111 would be ckadasasata, and it is evident that a sa has been omitted by mistake, so that we should read ckadasasatimaye. The form satimaya, and not satamaya, has already been met with in the Takht-i-Bāhī record and is the only one which is found in Kharoshṭhī inscriptions. It seems to be due to the analogy of ordinals formed from numerals ending in -sati.

The remaining portion of l. 1 is quite clear: śravaņasa masasa dise painchadase 10 4 1, only the da of painchadase is slightly irregular and blurred. It will be seen that va has been left out in dise, which stands for divase.

L. 2 opens with a word which I follow Professor Lüders in reading Anandaputrena. The first akshara looks like vi in the estampage, and there are some blurred lines to the right. An inspection of the original has, however, convinced me that it is a. The second might be read as kha, but the bottom seems indeed to be the anusvāra-curve. The apparent cross-bar of da is due only to the roughness of the stone. Anandaputra may mean 'the son of Ānanda', but putra can also mean a member of some group or association, and Anandaputra, 'a follower of Ānanda', or the like. The name of the person in question, Sanghamitra, being evidently a monastic name, the latter explanation seems to me to be the more likely one. For Sanghamitrena, the word following after Anandaputrena, Mr. Banerji read Sangamitrena, but the gha is perfectly clear.

Then follows kue karite, and not katite as read by Mr. Banerji. The leg of ra is always straight and that of ta sloping in this record. Kue karite represents Skr. kūpah karitah.

The final portion of the record does not admit of any doubt. We have matapitae puyae sarvasatvana hidasuhae. The r of rva and the v of tva, which were not read by Mr. Banerji, are quite certain. The form matapitae for matapitu or matapitarana is curious and may have been influenced by the ensuing puyae.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, pp. 46, 64 ff., with plate II. 2. 
<sup>2</sup> JRAS, 1909, p. 664<sup>2</sup>.

<sup>3</sup> SBAW, 1916, p. 806. 
<sup>4</sup> J&PASB, xviii, 1922, p. 66; cf. List, no. 46.

## ı. PĀJĀ. YEAR 111 ·



le 0-15

2. KALDARRA. YEAR 113



c 0·30

3. MĀRGUZ. YEAR 117 (?)



Scale 0.30





\_

According to Dr. van Wijk's calculations the date corresponds to the 23rd June A. D. 27.

#### TEXT

- L. 1 samvatšaraye ekad[a]śa[śa\*]timaye 1 100 10 1 śravaņasa masasa di[va\*]se pam-cha[da]śe 10 4 1
  - 2 Aņamdaputreņa Samghamitreņa kue karite matapitae puyae sarvasatvaņa hidasuhae.

## TRANSLATION

In the one-hundred-and-eleventh—111.—year, on the fifteenth—15.—day of the month Śrāvaṇa (this) well was caused to be made by Samghamitra, the Ānandaputra (or, the son of Ānanda), in honour of (his) mother and father, for the welfare and happiness of all beings.

## XXIV. PLATE XIII. 2: KĀLDARRA INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 113

No. I. 77 of the Lahore Museum is a stone, measuring 27 in. by 9 in., and bearing a Kharoshṭhī inscription in three lines. It was found by Colonel L. A. Waddell in the Kāldarra Nadī near Dargai, to the south of the Malakand Pass in Swāt and presented to the Lahore Museum by Sir Harold Deane.

The inscription was discussed and edited by Bühler, and new editions were published by M. Senart and Mr. Banerji.

The characters, which vary between 1 in. and  $2\frac{1}{4}$  in. in height, are of about the same date as those of the Mount Banj inscription. We may note the forward slope of the leg of ta, the broad angular ya, the short, but distinct upward continuation of the leg of sa and the shape of anteconsonantic r, without the later loop, in sarva, l. 2. A peculiarity of this record is the pronounced backward curve of the top of ta and ra. I cannot understand how Mr. Banerji can arrive at the conclusion that our inscription is certainly later than the Māṇikiāla record of the eighteenth year of the Kanishka era and refer it to the year A.D. 191.

The reading is perfectly certain, and has been correctly given by M. Senart as *Datia* putrena Thaïdorena pukarani karavita sarvasapana puyae vasha 1 100 10 1 1 1 śravanasa 20. Bühler misread the ninth akshara of l. 1 as no instead of do, and read vashra for vasha and śravana s[u\*]dha for śravanasa 20 in l. 3.

The object of the inscription is to record the construction of a tank (pukarani) by a person bearing the name of Thaïdora, i.e. as explained by M. Senart, Theodoros. According to Dr. van Wijk's calculations the date corresponds to the 5th July A. D. 29.

The donor bears a Greek name, but in a corrupt form. In a correct shape the same name occurs in the inscription on the Swāt vase, where we read about the meridarkh Theüdora, with u as often elsewhere used for the short Greek o. It is possible that the Thaïdora of the Kāldarra inscription was a descendant of the meridarkh, whose inscription may be about one hundred years older, since both records have been found in Swāt. But it is nothing more than a possibility.

<sup>3</sup> Ind. Ant., xxv, 1876, pp. 141 f.; WZKM, x, 1896, pp. 55 ff., with an additional note, p. 327.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> JA, 1x, xiii, 1899, pp. 531 ff., with plate opp. p. 536.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, pp. 31, 66 ff., with plate opp. p. 66.

Vincent Smith, JRAS, 1903, p. 41, states that it contains a reference to a Kushāṇa king.

Thaïdora is characterized as *Datiaputra*, and M. Senart translated this as 'son of Dati', comparing the Persian name Datis. But there is no instance of a genitive in -a from a masculine *i*-base in the dialect of Kharoshthī inscriptions. We must evidently explain *Datia* as a base and not as a case of *Dati*. It may represent *datika*, *dattika*, or *dantika*, and be a name, an ethnic, or an occupational designation. We have no means for arriving at certainty, and I shall therefore translate 'the Datia scion'.

Pukaraņi for Skr. pushkariņī occurs as pukariņi in the Pāṭhyār inscription, with the same absence of aspiration in k, i.e. kk, but without the secondary substitution of a for the penultimate i.

The form vasha probably stands for vashe, just as in the Takht-i-Bāhī inscription.

The tank is dedicated sarvasapana puyae, which Bühler translated as 'for the worship of all snakes'. This translation has been copied by M. Senart and Mr. Banerji and adopted by M. Foucher 1 and Professor Vogel.2 I think, however, that most scholars will agree with Professors Thomas and Lüders that sapana represents not Skr. sarpanam, but sattvanam. As remarked by Lüders, the dropping of anteconsonantic r in sarpa would be extraordinary, and, on the other hand, the change of Skr. tv to p, i.e. pp, is found in ekachaparisai for ekachatvārimse in the Ārā inscription. That record seems to present the very word sarvasapana, in the sentence sarva[sapa]na jatish[u][hi]tae, where we can hardly think of sarpa, because such a devout care for the welfare of snakes in their various rebirths would not be immediately intelligible. Also in the Taxila silver scroll it would be possible to read sapana in the passage sarvabudhana puyae prach[e\*]gabudhana puyae araha[ta\*]na puyae sarvasana[!] puyae matapitu puyae mitramachañatisalohi[ta\*]na puyae, where the position of sarvasana, i.e. sarvasapana or sarvasatvana between Buddhas, Pratyekabuddhas and Arhats on one side, and parents, friends, ministers, and relatives on the other, does not make it appropriate to think of snakes. On the other hand, blessings on all beings (sarvasatvaņa) are found in the Pājā, Sui Vihār, Hidda, Kanishka casket and Wardak inscriptions, and are so common in Buddhist records that I cannot feel any doubt about the explanation of our record.

#### TEXT

- L. 1 Datiaputrena Thaïdorena puka-
  - 2 raņi karavita sarvasapaņa puyae
  - 3 vash[e\*] 1 100 10 1 1 1 śravanasa 20.

#### TRANSLATION

By Thaïdora, the Datiaputra, (this) tank was caused to be made in honour of all beings, in the 113. year, on the 20. of Śrāvaņa.

## XXV. PLATE XIII. 3: MĀRGUZ INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 117 (?)

Mārguz is a village in the Swābi tahsīl of the Peshāwar District. Near the village is a mound, about two miles from the Indus, where a fragment of a marble slab, measuring 14 in. by 10 in., and bearing some Kharoshṭhī letters, has been found. It is now in the possession of a Muhammedan goldsmith of Mārguz, Jehangir by name.<sup>5</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> L'art gréco-bouddhique du Gandhara, ii, p. 458.

<sup>8</sup> Acta Orientalia, ii, p. 298.

<sup>8</sup> Ep. Ind., ix, p. 147.

<sup>4</sup> IRAS, 1909, p. 652.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Ep. Ind., ix, p. 147.

<sup>4</sup> JRAS, 1909, p. 652.

<sup>5</sup> Cf. Wasi-ud-Din, ASIFC, 1913-14, p. 2; Marshall, ASIAR, 1913-14, P. i, p. 29; Majumdar, List, no. 41.

The slab contains parts of two lines of well executed Kharoshthī letters, measuring from 1½ in. to 3½ in. The characters are almost identical with those of the Pājā inscription of the year 111.

L. I opens with four numerical figures and traces of a fifth. The four which can be read with certainty are: the lower portion of 4 and three strokes, i.e. 4 I I I, seven. Before the damaged 4 only part of a bottom-stroke is left. It reminds me of the lower part of the figure 10, as seen in the Pājā inscription. If it had been the figure 20, we should have expected the bottom to go further down. The only alternative seems to be that the figure before 4 was 100. I therefore restore the date as 1 100 10 4 I I I, i.e. 117, though 107 is also possible. The corresponding Christian dates would, according to Dr. van Wijk's calculations, be A.D. 33-34 or 23-24, respectively.

Then follows kuo sahaya, and we can safely follow the lead of the Muchai and Kala Sang inscriptions and restore sahayarana, though sahayana is also possible.

L. 2 opens with an akshara which is so like the da of hidasuhae in 1. 2 of the Pājā inscription, and which is, moreover, placed high up towards the top of the line as in that epigraph, that there can be no doubt about its nature. Then follows rana. To judge from the Muchai inscription: vashe ekasitimaye 20 20 20 1 sahayarana kue vashisugana, we seem to be justified in inferring that darana is the end of a word characterizing the sahayaras, whose well is mentioned. But then it is probable that ya was the last akshara of 1. 1, and that the second contained at the utmost three or four aksharas before da. L. 1 can accordingly not have contained many letters before the numeral figures, and we can, with some confidence, restore the beginning as vashe (or sam) 1 100 10 4 111.

We thus arrive at the following restoration:

TEXT

L. 1 [vashe 1 100\*] [10] 4 1 1 1 kuo sahaya2 [raṇa . . . .] daraṇa.

TRANSLATION

(In the year 11)7, the well of the .... dara companions.

## XXVI. PLATE XIII. 4: PANJTÄR INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 122

Panjtār is situated below the Mahāban range in 74° 31′ E. and 34° 14′ N. This place has given its name to an inscribed stone, which, according to Dr. Fleet, 'seems to have been actually found at a place named Salīmpūr, near Panjtār'. Cunningham brought it from the banks of the Indus in 1848, and deposited it, together with the Uṇḍ inscription, in the Lahore residency, where it had, however, already disappeared before 1853. The inscription was published by Cunningham.¹ The first line was reproduced and discussed by Professor Dowson² and quoted by Mr. E. Thomas.³

Mr. Vincent Smith twice referred to the inscription and its date,4 and further remarks

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JASB, xxiii, 1854, p. 705, with plate no. 4, xxxii, 1863, pp. 141, 145, 150; ASI, v, 1875, pp. 61 f. and a new plate, XVI, no. 4.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JRAS, xx, 1863, pp. 233 and 265 f., with plate x, fig. [3].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> JRAS, New Series, ix, 1877, p. 9<sup>1</sup>; James Prinsep, Essays on Indian Antiquities, London, 1858, vol. i, p. 165, with plate X, fig. 3, opposite p. 163.

<sup>4</sup> JASB, LXII, i, 1893, p. 85; JRAS, 1903, p. 41.

are due to M. Senart, Professor Bühler, Mr. R. D. Banerji, Dr. Fleet, Baron A. von Staël Holstein, myself, and Mr. Majumdar.

The inscription consisted of three lines, but we have no means for judging about the size of the stone and of the aksharas. Nor can we attempt to offer remarks on the palaeography of the record, because the reproductions are evidently made from eye-copies. We may note that the *cha* seems to show the downward continuation of the lower part, which we know from old inscriptions; that the *ya* is broad and angular, and that the *sa* of *gushanasa*, l. 1, in Cunningham's older plate shows a distinct lengthening of the leg above the jointure with the head.

The first line can be read with absolute certainty and seems to be complete, if we abstract from the last akshara, which has become damaged because the edge of the stone had evidently been broken off. Dr. Fleet's discussion of this line makes it unnecessary to mention previous attempts at transliteration and translation. It runs sami I 100 20 II Śravaṇasa masasa di pradhame I maharayasa Gushaṇasa raja[mi]. Dr. Fleet read prathame for pradhame, and it is possible that the reproductions are wrong. We cannot, however, do more than to transliterate what they actually give, and the dh is perfectly certain. The date, the first Śrāvaṇa 122, must be referred to the old Saka era and has been calculated by Dr. van Wijk to correspond to the 7th of June A.D. 38.

The word Gushaṇasa was explained by Staël Holstein as Gushaṇa sa, i.e. shāh, king, of the Gushas (Kushas), but Dr. Fleet was certainly right in stating that 'Gushaṇasa cannot be accepted as anything but the genitive singular of Gushaṇa, in apposition with the genitive singular maharayasa and dependent on the locative rajami'. Gushaṇa, i.e. Gushaṇa, is another rendering of the adjective Khushaṇa or Kushaṇa, which is formed from the simplex kusha by adding the suffix āna. The form gushaṇa also occurs in the Māṇikiāla inscription. The various forms with g, k, kh, Greek  $\kappa$  and  $\chi$  of this name, show that the initial cannot have been a familiar Indian sound. Most probably it was a guttural fricative.

The identity of the maharaya Gushaṇa has been discussed in the Historical Introduction, where I have given my reasons for identifying him with Kujūla Kadphises, of whom we know from Chinese sources that he assumed the title 'king of Kuei-shuang' after having conquered the other hi-hous. That title corresponds to our Gushaṇa maharaya. I have stated above, in my edition of the Takht-i-Bāhī inscription, that we have reasons for assuming that Kujūla Kadphises is mentioned as erjhuṇa Kapa in that record. When it was executed, in the year 103, he was simply a prince, perhaps not even a hi-hou. In the year 122 the victory over the other hi-hous had been effected, and we may infer from the find-place of our inscription that the Parthians had been ousted in the country to the west of the Indus.

The Chinese annals mention the invasion of An-si as following on the consolidation of the Kushāṇa power and evidently as preceding the conquest of Kao-fu, i.e. the territory where the Greek ruler Hermaeus tried to hold his own against the Parthians. The Panjtār inscription evidently belongs to the period after the invasion of An-si, but we cannot say whether Kao-fu had yet been reduced. And we have no reason for supposing that the Kushāṇa conquest had been pushed beyond the Indus, or as far east as Taxila.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JA, VIII, xv, 1890, p. 130<sup>1</sup>; 1X, xiii, 1899, p. 535.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Academy, 1896, no. 1252, p. 368; WZKM, x, p. 173.

<sup>3</sup> Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, pp. 31 and 44.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> JRAS, 1913, pp. 1010 f., 1914, p. 372, with a reproduction of Cunningham's first plate opposite p. 378, pp. 1002 f.

<sup>5</sup> JRAS, 1914, pp. 81<sup>1</sup>, 758 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> SBAW, 1916, pp. 802 f.; *Ep. Ind.*, xiv, p. 134.

The remaining portion of the inscription cannot be restored and explained in a satisfactory way, because we do not know in how far we can rely on the reproductions.

The beginning of 1. 2 was read as spesam asa by Cunningham, but the second akshara is certainly su and not sam. The first may be spe, though the position of the supposed e-stroke is irregular. If we compare the eleventh akshara of the same line, we see that it is evidently ka in Cunningham's second plate, while the older one has the same akshara as that under discussion, only with a more regular place of the e-stroke. We might therefore think of reading kasuasa or kesuasa. Or the dash to the right might be not the e-stroke, but the upper part of vha and have to be connected with the curve below, so that we should read vhasuasa. We can do no more than to mention the various possibilities. The form must be the genitive of a noun denoting some locality, probably the old name of Salīmpūr or Panjtār.

The next two aksharas were read as *prati* by Cunningham, but the second is evidently cha. Then follows the e-stroke of a letter, which seems to have been much damaged, and the lower parts of three verticals. A comparison of *prachu deso* in the Patika plate leads me to read deso, and [Ka]suasa pracha deso must mean 'the eastern region of [Ka]sua'.

After this Cunningham read mo Ika. His first plate, however, has a clear e-stroke above the third akshara, so that we must probably read moike. I take this to be an un-Indian name, and the form to be the instrumental singular, of the same kind as the forms kshatrave Sudase in the Lion Capital inscriptions.

The next word, which Cunningham read antumujaputra, is evidently Urumujaputre and probably contains the name of Moïka's father or means 'the Urumuja scion'.

The rest of the line was read as katra videsi vathala khatra deme by Cunningham, but must almost certainly be read as karavide sivathale tatra, and only the two aksharas which follow admit of doubt. The first looks like de, especially in Cunningham's second plate, but may also be misread for cha, and the second seems to be me, though it is broader and has a shorter e-stroke than in pradhame, l. 1. If we compare the context of the Patika plate, where atra [de\*]se follows after the naming of the locality, we become inclined to think that Cunningham's copy has been misdrawn, and that the last akshara was se. I prefer, however, to suggest cha me.

The words karavide sivathale seem to represent Skr. karapitam (or -te) sivasthalam (or -te). In view of the almost certain nominative deso it seems difficult to explain the forms as nominatives. In the Yākubi inscription, however, we in the same way find danam[u]khe but jinakumaro. We must therefore state that in that part of the country male a-bases seem to have formed their nominative in o and neuter bases in e.

What a *sivathala* is, I cannot say. The word may mean 'a Siva sanctuary' or simply 'an auspicious ground', and the latter meaning is probably the more likely one.

The beginning of l. 3 was read by Cunningham as danamitra raka I I. I have suggested to read dana mita tamka I I, comparing the word tanka, which is used to translate kārshāpaṇa in the Khotanī-Saka version of the Aparimitāyuḥsūtra. But a gist of two kārshāpaṇas would hardly have been considered sufficiently important to be recorded in an inscription. With every reserve I would suggest to read daṇami tar[u]-ka I I, supposing two trees to have been planted by the person who made the sivathala.

Then follows pañakarene, where Cunningham read -na, evidently considering the apparent e-stroke over the last akshara as accidental, and continued the line as follows: vaha makhu sirathala bama. The bottom of the whole line has evidently been mutilated, and it seems to me that we are justified in reading puñakareneva amata sivathala rama

.... ma. I take amata sivathala to be an accusative, probably of the plural. The last word cannot be restored, but we may perhaps think of some form of the base ram.

With great reserve I therefore read and translate as follows:

#### TEXT

- L. 1 sam 1 100 20 1 1 Śravaņasa masasa di pradhame 1 maharayasa Gushaņasa raja[mi]
  - 2 [Ka?]suasa pracha [deśo] Moike Urumujaputre karavide śivathale tatra [cha] me
  - 3 daṇami tar[u]ka 1 1 p[u]ñakareṇeva amata śivathala rama . . . . ma.

## TRANSLATION

Anno 122, on the first—1.—day of the month Śrāvaṇa, in the reign of the Gushaṇa Great King, the eastern region of [Ka?]sua was made an auspicious ground by Moika, the Urumuja scion. And there in my gift (are) two trees. Through this meritorious deed... immortal places of bliss.

# XXVII. PLATE XIV: TAXILA SILVER SCROLL INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 136

During his excavations in Taxila in the spring of 1914 Sir John Marshall unearthed a silver scroll bearing a Kharoshthi inscription. It was found in one of the chambers to the west of the Dharmarājikā stūpa of the Chir Mound. He describes the find as follows: 'In the room Go, near the back wall opposite the entrance which faces the main stūpa and a foot below the floor, I found a deposit consisting of a steatite vessel with a silver vase inside, and in the vase an inscribed scroll and a small gold casket containing some minute bone relics. A heavy stone placed over the deposit had, unfortunately, been crushed down by the fall of the roof, and had broken both the steatite vessel and the silver vase, but had left the gold casket uninjured and chipped only a few fragments from the edge of the scroll, nearly all of which I was, fortunately, able to recover by carefully sifting and washing the earth in the vicinity. The cleaning and transcription of the record has been a matter of exceptional difficulty, as the scroll, which is only 6½ in. long by 13 in. wide and of very thin metal, had been rolled up tightly, face inwards, in order that it might be enclosed in the silver vase; moreover, the metal of which it is composed is silver alloyed with a small percentage of copper, which had formed an efflorescene on the surface of the extremely brittle band, with the result that I could neither unroll it without breaking it nor subject it to the usual chemical treatment. By the use of strong acid, however, applied with a zinc pencil, I was able to remove the copper efflorescence and expose, one by one, the punctured dots of the lettering on the back of the scroll, and then, having transcribed these with the aid of a mirror, to break off a section of the scroll and so continue the process of cleaning and transcription. In this way I succeeded in making a complete copy of the record from the back of the scroll, while the letters were yet intact. Afterwards, I cleaned in like manner and copied the face of each of the broken sections, and was gratified to find that my second transcript was in accurate agreement with the first.'

The inscription, which is now No. Ch. G. 5 of the Taxila Museum, has been edited by Sir John,<sup>1</sup> M. Boyer,<sup>2</sup> and myself.<sup>3</sup> Valuable contributions to the reading and inter-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JRAS, 1914, pp. 973 ff.; 1915, pp. 191 ff., with plate; ASIAR, 1912-13, pp. 18 ff. and plate XI; 1913-14, P. i, pp. 12 f. and plate XVI; 1914-15, pp. 2 f.; A Guide to Taxila, 2nd ed., Calcutta, 1921, pp. 52 ff. and plate VII.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JA, XI, v, 1915, pp. 281 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> SBAW, 1916, pp. 803 ff.; Ep. Ind., xiv, pp. 284 ff. and plate; cf. Acta Orientalia, iii, pp. 75 ff.

pretation have been made by Messrs. Thomas, Fleet, Bhandarkar, Woolner, Ramaprasad Chanda, Harit Krishna Deb, Rapson, and Lüders. It is no. 72 of Mr. Majumdar's List.

The discussion has chiefly borne on the questions about the date and the ruler mentioned in the record. With regard to the date, we must bear in mind the fact that, according to Sir John, 'the chapel in question is built in a small diaper type of masonry which came into vogue in Taxila about the middle of the first century A.D., and lasted for about a hundred years'.

The inscription consists of five lines, and the letters are drawn by means of dots punched into the plate, and not in continuous lines. The execution is good and the shape of individual letters is fairly constant.

The type of the characters is younger than in the Patika plate and older than in the Dewai inscription. We may note the cursive cha, where the top runs into the lower part without the downward prolongation of the latter; the slight rounding of the angle of ja; the forward slope of the leg of ta; the deep indenture of ba; the angular shape of ya; the backward slope of the leg of sa, with the distinct prolongation above the jointure, and the loop-shape of anteconsonantic r.

With regard to phonology we may note that intervocalic j becomes y in puyae, 11. 4 and 5, but is retained in maharaja, rajatiraja, 1. 3; that n is used both for n and for n; that intervocalic t becomes d in pradi, 1. 1, but is retained as t elsewhere, and that t also becomes d in the enclitic de after  $aya[m^*]$ , 1. 5.

There are some few mistakes in the writing. Thus we find prachaga for prachaga, 1. 4; bosisatva for bodhisatva, 1. 3; arahana for arahatana, 1. 4; salohina for salohitana, 1. 5; Takshasie for Takshasilae, 1. 3; and sarvasana for sarvasatvana or sarvasapana, 1. 4. L. 1 opens with the date: sa 1 100 20 10 4 1 1 ayasa ashadasa masasa divase 10 4 1,

which has given rise to much discussion.

Sir John explained ayasa as the genitive of the name Aya, Azes, and thought that it was added in order to characterize the year as belonging to an era founded by Azes, and this view has been endorsed by Professor Rapson and Mr. Ramaprasad Chanda.

Sir John draws attention to the fact that other dated inscriptions of the same period 'open with the titles and name of the ruler, expressed in the genitive case, followed by the date, and it is, of course, well known that in their case . . . the era in which they are dated is unspecified. In the two Taxila records, on the contrary, the opening formula presents a significant difference. Here, the year of the era in which they are dated comes first, then the name of the king, and, lastly, the month and the day'. He thinks that this difference in the arrangement points to the conclusion that the construction of the context is different, and he lays stress on the fact that we have not 'a single Kharoshṭhī inscription of this age phrased in the same way as the Taxila inscriptions and dated in an unspecified era'.

Mr. Ramaprasad Chanda seems to attach considerable importance to this argument. It should, however, be borne in mind that the number of dated Kharoshṭhī inscriptions, especially of such which give the name of a ruler, is limited, and a glance at the list in the introductory remarks about the eras will show that there is no fixed rule in the arrangement of the dates. Moreover, we cannot overlook the evidence of the Kharoshṭhī

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JRAS, 1914, pp. 987 ff.; 1915, pp. 155 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Ind. Ant., xlv, 1916, pp. 120 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> JRAS, 1920, pp. 319 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> The Cambridge History of India, i, pp. 581 ff.

B Deutsche Literaturzeitung, 1924, p. 1865.

<sup>2</sup> JRAS, 1914, pp. 992 ff.; 1915, pp. 314 ff.

<sup>4</sup> JRAS, 1916, pp. 570 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> JRAS, 1922, pp. 37 ff.

inscriptions from Eastern Turkestan, which are evidently framed after the same pattern, and where the rule is to give first the year, then the name of the ruler in the genitive, then the month and the day, exactly as in the Taxila records.<sup>1</sup>

Mr. Chanda seems to have found support with Mr. Akshay Kumar Maitra, who maintains that 'if ayasa is not a proper name, then, on the analogy of the Wardak Vase inscription of the year 51, the year 136 should be treated as a year of the Kushan era of Kanishka. The Wardak Vase inscription opens with the date "In the year 51, on the day 15 (of the first half?) of the month of Artemisios"; then follows an account of the deposit of the relic, followed by benediction on King Hoveshka. Similarly, in the Taxila inscription of the year 136 the date and the account of the deposit of the relic is followed by benediction on an unnamed Kushan (Khushana) King. The only new element in this latter record is the word ayasa between the mention of the year and the month. If ayasa is explained away as an adjective qualifying Ashadasa, we have to recognize the year 136 as a year of the Kushan era'.

It seems hardly possible to infer more from the parallelism between the Taxila and Wardak records than that a Kushāṇa was ruling at the time of the former and another Kushāṇa, Huvishka at that of the latter.

Against Sir John Marshall's interpretation it has been urged that ayasa is hardly the name of a ruler, because we have no example of the use of the mere name without any title or further designation.

Professor Rapson meets this objection by drawing attention to the fact 'that the inscription belongs to a people that knew not Azes. His family had been deposed and deprived of all royal attributes. The throne of Takshaśilā had passed from the Śakas and Pahlavas to the Kushāṇas. Azes could scarcely have been furnished with his wanted title, "Great King of Kings", in this inscription, without prejudice to the house actually ruling'.

If we admit the possibility of this explanation, it will still be difficult to understand why we have no traces of such a habit of speaking about Azes-years in other inscriptions. For the idiom could not be intelligible unless it were commonly used.

It has further been maintained, especially by Dr. Fleet, that Sir John's explanation of the dates of the two Taxila records leads to the unlikely result that down to the date of the Patika plate two eras, one instituted by Moga and the other by Azes, were used simultaneously, because the two eras evidently overlap. This argument does not, however, seem to be of great weight, because in such circumstances it would be quite natural to distinguish between the two reckonings by additions such as ayasa.

The chief objection against the explanation of ayasa as the name of a ruler is that it is the invariable practice in old inscriptions that the name of a ruler added to the date in the genitive can only denote a ruling prince then actually in power. This objection is, so far as I can see, decisive. If ayasa actually meant 'of Azes', Azes must have been still ruling in the year 136, and he must have been ruling simultaneously with the maharaja rajatiraja devaputra Khushana mentioned in 1.3. And that is of course excluded.

The word ayasa must accordingly be explained in a different way, and various suggestions have been made. Lüders thought of the possibility that aya sa might stand for ayain sanivatsaro, this is the year, and be comparable with the words isa divase following after the month and the day. But such an idiom is entirely unexampled. Moreover, the year is always, where we can control the grammar, mentioned in the locative, and we should expect the same to be the case also in the repetition, just as in isa divase. And, finally, the abbreviation sa has never been met with outside the stereotype formula at the beginning of the date.

<sup>1</sup> Cf. the list in my paper in the Acta Orientalia, ii, pp. 113 ff.

It seems to be necessary to explain ayasa as an adjective qualifying the ensuing ashadasa. It might represent Skr. āryasya and characterize the month as Aryan in contradistinction to the Macedonian months mentioned in other records. But this explanation is hardly likely, because in an inscription in Indian language it would be perfectly intelligible if a Macedonian month were designated as such, but less so in the case of an Indian month, unless the use of the Macedonian names were the rule. And an examination of dated Kharoshthī inscriptions shows that it was quite the other way.

Then it has been suggested, by Professor Thomas, to explain ayasa as a genitive formed from the base of the pronoun ayam, this. An expression such as 'of this Āshādha', would be intelligible in the very month in which it was used, in case there were, in that particular year, two months Āshādha. But it would be perfectly unintelligible later on. The same consideration makes it impossible to accept another suggestion, of Dr. Fleet, that easa is the actual reading and stands for Skr. etasya, by which explanation we have the additional difficulty that intervocalic t does not disappear in the dialect.

A third suggestion, by Dr. Fleet, was to correct ayasa to viyasa and explain this as corresponding to Skr. dvitīyasya, Sindhī bbiyyo or  $bbīj\bar{v}$ , Lahndī  $bb\bar{v}ya$ , Kāśmīrī biya, another. But then, in the first place, we should have to reckon with the disappearance of an intervocalic t, and, in the second, the initial b of the modern forms is not derived from an old v, but from dv, which becomes b through the intermediate stage db and not through v.\(^1\) And, finally, we have ayasa and not viyasa.

The only explanation which does not necessitate any change or the assumption of some phonetical irregularity and which gives a clear and satisfactory sense is to explain ayasa as corresponding to Skr.  $\bar{a}dyasya$ . For Skr.  $\bar{a}dya$  we should expect either  $\bar{a}diya$  or ajja, and the latter might become  $\bar{a}ja$ ,  $\bar{a}ya.^2$  Cf. doublets such as bharia, bharya, bhaya, Skr. bharyā.

If the explanation of ayasa as representing Skr. ādyasya is accepted, the explanation cannot well be, as suggested by M. Boyer, that the month Āshādha was the first one in the year, which would, accordingly, have been ashādhādi. Nobody would easily think of dating a letter on the fifteenth of the initial January, or, in India, of the initial Kārttika. The meaning must be, as stated by Professor Bhandarkar, that there were, in that particular year, two months Āshādha.

We know from the Jyotisha that in the ancient Indian calendar an Āshādha was intercalated every five years. But then the occasional use of Macedonian months and the through reckoning of the days of the month show that the calendar was influenced by Macedonian notions. In other words, we have before us an early stage of that fusion of Indian and Greek astronomy and calendars which later on found its expression in the Siddhāntas.

As pointed out in the Introduction, our record is the only one within the older series of Kharoshṭhī inscriptions which contains such an additional detail. If the methods of the Siddhāntas are applied, Dr. van Wijk finds that only two years between A.D. 50 and 80 suit the case, viz. A.D. 52 and A.D. 71. If we can refer the era of the silver scroll to the same era as that of the older Taxila inscription of Patika, there can only be the question of the former, and we may, as a working hypothesis, fix the date as corresponding to the 17th May A.D. 52.

After the date follows, as already mentioned, isa diva[se] and then [pradi]stavita bhagavato dhatu[o]. The head of se in divase is damaged, and of the ensuing pradi only

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Pischel, Grammatik der Präkrit-Sprachen, § 300.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The case is of course different with Skr. udyāna, which becomes uyyāna in Pāli and e. g. in the Shāhbāzgarhī version of the Aśoka edicts.

3 Acta Orientalia, iii, pp. 79 ff.

the bottom remains. The existing traces show that di, and not ti, is almost absolutely certain. The final o of *dhatuo* is also defaced, but beyond doubt.

The three last aksharas of l. 1, which Sir John originally read as *dhurasa*, are certainly, as seen by Professor Thomas, *urasa*, and they must be taken together with the two first aksharas of l. 2, *kena*, as one word *urasakena*. Professor Thomas took this to mean 'of Urasa' and as giving 'the nationality (which, in fact, usually comes first), and not the name, of the donor'. M. Boyer is also of the same opinion, but I cannot accept it.

In the first place I do not know of any Kharoshṭhī inscription giving, in this way, the nationality of the donor before the name. And then the Bedadi ladle inscription shows that *Uraśa* was sounded with a palatal ś in Uraśā, i.e. Hazāra itself. I therefore take *Urasaka* to be the name of the donor, bearing in mind that the element sāka, strength, vigour, is not uncommon in Iranian names.

The next akshara is damaged and uncertain. Sir John originally read dhi and subsequently lo, comparing the first akshara of l. 5, which is certainly lo. Professor Thomas suggested to read in or vin, and M. Boyer accepted the former but drew attention to the fact that the supposed i-stroke is sloping and not straight as in isa, l. 1. The facsimile plate is illegible, and an examination of the original did not give better results. Our only guide is, therefore, the copy which Sir John made before the scroll was unrolled. Here there is a certain resemblance with the lo of l. 5. The latter, however, shows a straight vertical, while our akshara resembles an a with a curved bottom and an oblique cross-bar. An almost identical akshara occurs in the Dharmarājikā inscription 3, where the reading in seems to be certain. The following letter is slightly more sloping than la, so that we might think of da. But la is probably to be read.

Then follows vhriaputrana, and the whole word is accordingly imtavhriaputrana. This has usually been considered to be a slip for -putrena and to contain the name of the donor's father, which name, Initavhria or Initavhri, has been compared by Professor Thomas with Vindapharna, Undopherres, Gondophernes, Guduvhara, &c., and explained as a new variant of this name. But there are difficulties. I formerly thought of explaining Imtachria as the genitive of a name Imtachri. But we have no example in Kharoshthī inscriptions of genitives in ia from old i or  $\bar{i}$ -bases. Intavhriaputra can, of course, mean 'the son of Imtavhria'. But then the scroll has -putrana and not putrena, and, in the same way, the Ārā inscription gives Da[sha]vharena Poshapuriaputrana. We are, therefore, hardly justified in correcting the text, but must explain Imtavhriaputrana and Poshapuriaputrana as genitives of the plural, dependent on the preceding name. And then pulra does not seem to mean 'son', but to have the wider sense of 'scion', 'individual member of a larger group'. Poshapuria may mean 'belonging to Poshapura', i.e. Peshāwar, and Poshapuriaputra 'a Peshāwari boy'. If this explanation is right, Iintavhria may be the designation of a locality, or else of a family. We may compare the Māṇikiāla bronze casket inscription Kavisiakshatrapasa G(r)ana[vhrya]kakshatrapaputrasa, of the Kapiśakshatrapa, the son of the G(r)anavhryaka-kshatrapa, where we apparently have the same vhria as in our record. I therefore translate 'of the Imtayhria boys' and abstain from further attempts at explaining Imtachria.1

The next word bahaliena I follow Sir John in identifying with Skr. bāhlīkena, a man from Balkh. In this connexion it may be of interest to note that Bāhlīkas are mentioned in connexion with Takshaśilā by Varāhamihira, Brihatsamhitā x. 7. The treatment of intervocalic k in this word is in favour of considering it as an Indian word and not as

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> If *Lotavhria* should, after all, prove to be the correct reading, the name might, as suggested by Dr. Morgenstierne, belong to an Iranian dialect where initial d became l, as in modern Pashto and Munjānī. Lota would then be the well-known dāta, corresponding to Skr. dharma.

a foreign name. In prachaga, i.e. prachega, l. 4, intervocalic k has, in a similar way, been modified, while it is left unchanged in the foreign name Urasakena, l. 1. Moreover, the ensuing remark about the domicile of the donor would be more in its place after the word mentioning his place of origin, than according to the other explanation, where that word comes first, then the personal name, and after that the remark about the domicile.

The latter runs: Noachae nagare vastavena, where the use of the cerebral n both as an initial and between vowels may point to a weakening of the difference between n and n, just as in the usual Saurasenī of Indian dramas. The town Noacha or Noachaa cannot be localized. We do not even know whether it should be looked for in the neighbourhood of Taxila or elsewhere, e.g. in Balkh.

The remaining portion of l. 2 is clear: tena ime pradistavita bhagavato dhatuo dhamara. The last three aksharas must be read together with ie, the two first letters of l. 3, as dhamaraic.

The word dhamaraie has been explained to mean 'at the Dharmarājikā stūpa', Dharmarājikā being thought to have been the designation of the main stūpa of the Chir Mound.

Dharmarājikā was stated to mean a stūpa by Stanislas Julien,¹ and Prosessor Vogel² states that, more particularly, it denotes a stūpa erected by Aśoka, the Dharmarāja. He refers us to M. Foucher,³ who quotes the Divyāvadāna, where we read (p. 379): Aśoko nāma . . . dharmarājo . . . chaturašītim dharmarājikāsahasram pratishṭhāpayishyati, Aśoka, the Dharmarāja, will establish eighty-four thousand dharmarājikās. M. Boyer aptly objects that we learn from the same text that Aśoka received the designation Dharmarāja because he was supposed to have erected dharmarājikās.⁴ We must therefore explain the word dharmarajikā otherwise, and since we know that Aśoka's stūpas were considered to have been erected over relics of the Buddha, the real Dharmaraja, it is probable that dharmarājikā really denotes a stūpa erected over such relics.

The form dhamaraie cannot belong to an ä-base dhamaraia, Skr. dharmarajika. M. Boyer is inclined to consider it as the oblique case of dhamarai, Skr. dharmaraji, which might be a short form of dharmarajikā. In one of the Dharmarājikā inscriptions, however, we read Taksha[ś\*]ilaami dhamaraie, so that dhamaraie is evidently the locative of an adjective dhamaraia, Skr. dhārmarājika, connected with a dharmarājikā, the dharmarājikā compound.

The ensuing word Takshasie is evidently miswritten for Takshasilae, and Sir John took it to be the locative of the name Takshasilā. The Dharmarājikā inscription mentioned above, with its Takshassilaami dhamaraie, however, makes me inclined to explain Takshasila\*]e as the locative of an adjective Takshasilaa, corresponding to Skr. Takshasila, belonging to Takshasilā.

Then follows tanuvae bosisatvagahami, where si in bosi is miswritten for dhi. The va of tanuvae seems to be certain.

The word tanuvae was taken to be the locative of Tanuva, the name of some locality, by Sir John. M. Boyer explained it as Skr. tanuvyaye, at the sacrifice of the body, and referred us to the Jātaka about the Bodhisattva's sacrifice of his own body, thinking that

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Mémoires sur les contrées occidentales, par Hiouen-thsang, i, p. 417.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> ASIAR, 1903-4, p. 223.

<sup>3</sup> Étude sur l'iconographie bouddhique de l'Inde. Paris, 1900, p. 55.

<sup>\*</sup> p. 381: ekasmin divase ekamuhūrte chaturašīti dharmarājikāsahasrain pratishṭhāpitam. Vakshyati cha . . . Mauryaḥ \ chakre stūpānāin śāradābhraprabhānāin loke sāśīti śāsad ahnā sahasram \ \ Yāvach cha rājñ-Āśokena chaturaśīti dharmarājikāsahasrain pratishṭhāpitain dharmiko dharmarājā sainvrittaḥ. Tasya Dharmāśoka iti sainjñā jātā.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Cf. Jātakamālā, ed. Kern, p. 5: svām tanum utsasarja, and, with regard to the formation of the word, dehavyaya.

the bodhisattvagriha was erected to commemorate this Jātaka. My own old explanation was that Taṇuvā was the name of the foundress of the chapel.

Since the appearance of the Kurram casket inscription and the Niya inscriptions, however, we know that tanuvaa, tanuvaka, is a word meaning 'own', 'belonging to'; cf. e.g. the Niya document 235, where we have clasra tanuvagra, belonging to him. It is evidently the same word or a variant which has become the common genitive suffix tanui in Old Gujarātī, tano and no in Modern Gujarātī, tano in Mārwārī. We can only be in some doubt whether we should take it together with the preceding Takshaśi[la]e as meaning 'belonging to Takshaśilā'. I have, however, already stated that other reasons make it probable that Takshaśi[la]e is an adjective, and an idiom Takshaśilae tanuvaa, belonging to Takshaśilā, is in itself not likely. In the Kurram inscription tanuvaka means 'own', and must be referred to the person who establishes a relic of the Buddha, and the same explanation must evidently be applied to our passage.

Then follows maharajasa rajatirajasa devaputrasa Khushanasa arogadakshinae. I have stated in the Historical Introduction that I think it necessary to identify this ruler with Kujūla Kadphises, and it seems probable that the inscription was executed not very long after Kujūla Kadphises had been established in power in Taxila. Otherwise we should have had some reason for expecting the ruler's name to have been mentioned in connexion with the date. Even though the record is a private one, it is evident that Urasaka was closely connected with the Kushāṇa ruler.

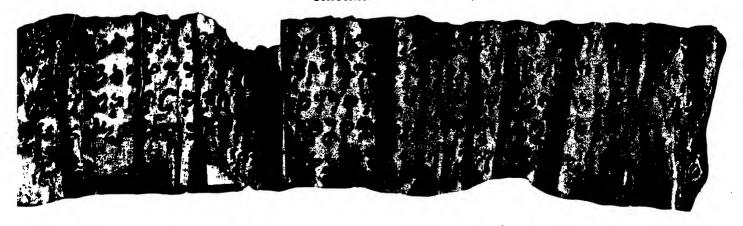
L. 4 does not present any difficulty: sarvabudhaṇa puyae prach[e\*]gabudhaṇa puyae araha[ta\*]ṇa pu[ya]e sarvasa[tva\*]ṇa [pu]yae matapitu puyae mitramachañatisa- (L. 5) lohi[ta\*]ṇa puyae. It will be seen that there are several slips, which can all, however, be corrected with certainty. The first aksharas of l. 5, which must be read together with l. 4, are also absolutely clear in the original, and the missing syllable can be restored from one of the Dharmarājikā inscriptions, where we read salohidaṇa. M. Boyer thought that salohiṇa might be the genitive plural from salohin, formed from saloha, loha instead of lohita occurring in lohalinga, a certain disease, enumerated in the Mahāvyutpatti 284. 23 between sosha and apamāra, and usually translated 'a boil or abscess filled with blood'. The existence of such a word loha is, however, very uncertain, and the analogy of the Dharmarājikā inscription renders the restoration salohitaṇa or, perhaps, salohidaṇa, absolutely certain, especially in view of the many slips exactly in this passage.

Then follows atvano arogadakshinae nivanae hotu, where there has only been some doubt about the compound letter which I read tva, but which has formerly been read sometimes tva and sometimes tma, according to the different correspondence in Sanskrit, and about the va of nivanae, which Professor Thomas substituted for Sir John's nianae. There is a slight bend at the termination of the horizontal of va, but the reading seems to be absolutely certain.

Then follows a damaged letter, which can, however, clearly be made out as a, though there is a slight bend of the bottom. After a comes a break, followed by an akshara which is certainly de. M. Boyer proposed to restore agade, Skr. agratah, and I accepted that restoration in my edition of the record, though we should expect final ah to become o in the Taxila dialect. An examination of the original shows that the missing portion of the plate cannot have contained the akshara ga. There is an oblique stroke at the left edge of the break, which is so like the left leg of ya that there can be little doubt that we should read ya. We thus arrive at ayade, which can hardly be anything else than Skr. ayam te. Aya must then be connected with the last word of the inscription samaparichago, which we must follow M. Boyer in explaining as Skr. samyakparityāgah, The reading aya makes it impossible to correct the text to sa me parichago.

# TAXILA SILVER SCROLL. YEAR 136

ORIGINAL



#### TRANSCRIPT

It is of interest to see that the last sentence speaks of the donor in the second person. It therefore evidently contains a blessing given as a kind of endorsement by some dignitary, probably by some leading Buddhist connected with the stupa or the chapel.

After the text the plate shows the symbol &, which is known from the coins of Kujūla Kara Kadphises, Wima Kadphises, and Zeionises. I have stated in the Historical Introduction that I do not think that we are allowed to draw any chronological conclusions from its occurrence. Somewhat similar symbols are also found on coins of Guduvhara, and its occurrence in our inscription may have some connexion with the extension of Kushāṇa power to Taxila.

## TEXT

- L. I Sa I 100 20 10 4 I I ayasa ashadasa masasa divase 10 4 I isa diva[se pradi]stavita bhagavato dhatu[o] Ura[sa]-
  - 2 keņa [Im]tavhriaputraņa Bahalieņa Ņoachae ņagare vastaveņa Teņa ime pradistavita bhagavato dhatuo dhamara-
  - 3 ie Takshaśi[la\*]e taņuvae bosi(dhi)satvagahami maharajasa rajatirajasa devaputrasa Khushanasa arogadakshinae
  - 4 sarva[bu]dhana puyae prach[e\*]gabudhana puyae araha[ta\*]na pu[ya]e sarvasa[tva\* na puyae matapitu puyae mitramachañatisa-
  - 5 lohi[ta\*]na [pu]yae atvano arogadakshinae Nivanae hotu a[ya] de samaparichago.

## TRANSILATION

Anno 136, on the 15. day of the first month Āshāḍha, on this day were established relics of the Lord by Urasaka, of the Imtavhria boys, the Bactrian, the resident of the town of Noacha. By him these relics of the Lord were established in his own bodhisattva chapel, in the Dharmarājikā compound of Takshaśilā, for the bestowal of health on the Great King, the King of Kings, the Son of Heaven, the Khushāṇa, in honour of all Buddhas, in honour of the Pratyekabuddhas, in honour of the Arhats, in honour of all beings, in honour of mother and father, in honour of friends, ministers, kinsmen, and blood-relations, for the bestowal of health upon himself.

May this thy right munificence lead to Nirvāṇa.

# XXVIII. PLATE XV. 1: PESHĀWAR MUSEUM INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 168

Inscription no. 20 of the Peshāwar Museum is found on a stone, measuring 15 in. by 8 in. by 7 in., which was presented to the Museum by Sir Aurel Stein on the 4th July, 1916.¹ Sir Aurel had received it from Sir Harold Deane, who had no information about its provenance.

The inscribed portion covers 11 in.  $\times 4$  in., and the size of individual letters varies from 1 in. to  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in. Below the inscription is a svastika.

The characters are intermediate between the older and the Kushāṇa varieties, and the forms of individual letters are not quite uniform. Ku in 1. 2 has the shape which we already find in the Kala Sang inscription, where the top-line and the side-limb form one continuous curve. In 1. 3 the side-limb is likewise a curve, but placed slightly lower than the top-line. The top of kha is long and curved to the right, almost as in the Shakardarra inscription. The bottom is curved to the right in kha, and to the left in kha, 1. 3. The cha of 1. 1 has a very cursive shape, with an almost straight top and a curve at the bottom, which looks almost like an anusvāra, and is perhaps wrongly transferred from the preceding letter. If the third akshara of 1. 2 is chi, we there have

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. V. Natesa Aiyar, ASIFC, 1916-17, pp. 6 and 27; Majumdar, List, no. 54.

a distinct upper curve and a straight termination of the lower part. The letter de in 1. 3 has an exceptional shape, consisting of a sloping line with an e-stroke protruding above the bottom. It is probably misdrawn. Ya has the broadened top which we already find in Kāldarra. The shape of sa is inconsistent, looking like a ra in mase, l. 1, having the same rounded head as in the Kala Sang record in divase, l. 1, and being provided with the forward protrusion of the leg which we know from the Patika and Mount Banj records in l. 2.

L. 1 is comparatively clear: sain 1 100 20 20 20 4 4 Jethamase divase painchadas[e]. There are some dots after the last figure of the date, but they do not seem to form part of an additional figure, which could only have been 1. I take them to indicate the end of the date, in a similar way as in the Fatehjang inscription, and I find a confirmation of this explanation in the fact that a comparatively long interval separates the figures denoting the year from the remaining part of the record.

The cha of painchadase looks like chain, and it is possible that the anusvāra has been written by mistake, because the preceding akshara was provided with an anusvāra hook. A similar cha is, however, found in 1. 6 of the Ārā inscription, where we must read cha and not chain.

The e of se is not certain. It is not found on the top of the letter, as usual, but the bottom is connected with the bottom of the preceding da, and the projection of the right vertical may be meant to represent an e, in a similar way as in de, l. 3.

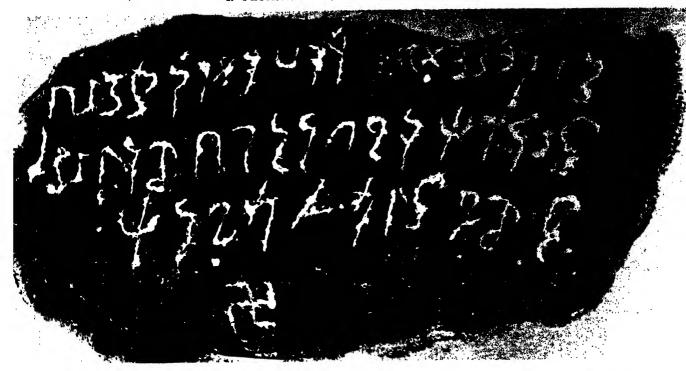
L. 2. The first akshara is evidently khu, and the second can only be da, though it differs from the other da's, which have a peculiar rectilinear shape.

Then follow two aksharas, of which the first seems to consist of an angle, opening towards the right and resting on a sloping leg, from the middle of which a horizontal protrudes towards the next akshara. The second looks like e, but the apparent e-stroke stands much higher than in the certain e of kue, l. 3. Moreover, the akshara is followed by an unmistakable mi,1 so that we evidently have to do with a locative singular in -ami. It therefore seems necessary to read the fourth akshara as a and take the apparent e-stroke as belonging to the preceding letter. Now it will be seen that it can be traced upwards to the termination of the figure standing above in l. 1, and that there are faint traces of a line crossing it and running into the upper leg of the angle of the third akshara. We thus arrive at the result that the third akshara consists of an upper curve over an angular leg, provided with an i-stroke, i. e. we must read chi and consider the apparent projection from the leg as accidental. And an examination of the original has confirmed me in this view.

The first word of 1. 2 is, therefore, Khudachiami, and there cannot, I think, be any doubt that we have to do with the same word which occurs in l. 6 of the Manikiala inscription, where we must evidently read Vespasiena Khudachiena, together with Vespasia the Khudachian. Khudachia is accordingly an adjective formed from the name of a locality, and it is to be regretted that we do not know the find-place of our record, so that we cannot identify it. The name of the place was perhaps Khudacha; cf. the local name Noacha occurring in the Taxila silver scroll.

The next word might be sahayana; cf. the na of the Ārā inscription. We shall see later on, however, that the cerebral n is used in words such as danamukhe, khanavide, and the fourth akshara is, moreover, almost identical with the ra of viharami, l. 3. I therefore think that we must read sahayara. This sahayara is either a slip instead of sahayarana, or else it must be connected with the ensuing word into a com-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Mr. Majumdar reads ga, assuming the letter to be misdrawn or incomplete.



2. KHALATSE. YEAR 187



3 DEWAI. YEAR 200



Scale o.60

pound. In all other Kharoshthī records where sahayas or sahayaras are mentioned these words are used in the genitive plural.<sup>1</sup>

The next word was read Travasashuraņa by Mr. Majumdar, who translated 'gift of Agasahaya, the father-in-law of Trapā'. But sashura could not represent a Skr. svašura, because an uncompound sa cannot, in the north-western dialect, become sha, and the fourth letter is certainly ku and not shu. The fifth can be ra, but it will be seen that the projecting limb is much shorter than in ra of viharami, 1. 3, and the reading is not quite certain. It would be possible to read Travasakunaņa, and to compare the word Sakuna which occurs as the name of a people side by side with Gāndhāra in the Mahābhārata vii. 802. But it would be rather extraordinary to find a dental and a cerebral n side by side in this way. I therefore read Travasakuraņa and refrain from any attempt at explaining this name, which is just as unintelligible as the remaining names of associations of sahāyas or sahacharas.

The next word seems to be rather danamukhe than danamukhe. If the anusvāra was actually sounded, it must be explained as an anticipation of the ensuing nasal.

The remaining portion does not present any difficulty. According to Dr. van Wijk's calculations the date corresponds to the 24th April, A. D. 84.

### TEXT

- L. 1 Sam 1 100 20 20 20 4 4. Jethamase divase pamchadas[e]
  - 2 Khuda[chi]ami sahayara Travasakurana danammu-
  - 3 khe kue khanavide viharami.

## TRANSLATION

Anno 168, in the month Jyaishtha, on the fifteenth day, (this) well was caused to be dug as the gift of the Travasakura companions in the Khudacha vihāra.

## XXIX. PLATE XV. 2: KHALATSE INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 187 (?)

Khalatse is a village in Ladakh, 52 miles below Leh on the trade route. There are several inscriptions near the place, which have been discovered and partly utilized by Dr. A. H. Francke, and among them are a few Kharoshthī records.<sup>2</sup>

A photograph of the most important one was sent to Professor Rapson, who wrote to Dr. Francke in a letter of the 23rd September, 1910, that he could read the word maharajasa, followed by a name beginning with a and ending with the genitive termination sa, and, above the name, a date, which he—' with some doubt as to whether three strokes at the end are part of the date or not'—read as 187.

It has proved impossible to get new and better reproductions, and my edition is, therefore, based on the photograph utilized by Professor Rapson and the imperfect plate published by Dr. Francke after a hand-copy.

In such circumstances it is not possible to judge with certainty about the palaeography of the record. The square shape of ka and the angular head of sa, with a distinct bend of the lower vertical forwards and upwards, remind us so strongly of the Patika and Mount Banj records, that the epigraph makes the impression of being old. In the same neighbourhood was found a Brāhmī inscription, which Professor Vogel<sup>3</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Fatchjang Vadhitiraņa sahayaņa, Muchai sahayaraņa kue Vashisugaņa, Mārguz sahaya . . . . daraņa, Kala Sang . . . yaraņa Pipalakhaaņa.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. A. H. Francke, ZDMG, 61, 1907, pp. 592 f., with plate II; ASIAR, 1909–10, p. 104; Antiquities of Indian Tibet, Calcutta, 1914, p. 94; Konow, Acta Orientalia v, pp. 31 ff.; Majumdar, List, no. 25.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Francke, ZDMG, 61, p. 592.

referred to the Maurya period, about 200 B.C. There cannot be any question of assigning such an early date to our inscription, and we must reckon with the possibility that the Kharoshthī letters retained their old shape in Khalatse longer than elsewhere.

There are two lines, and above the beginning of l. 2 and to the right of l. 1 there is a rough drawing, which seems to represent a standing warrior or king.

The first line was read by Professor Rapson as sam 1 100 20 20 20 20 4 1 1 1. He rightly remarks that it is doubtful whether the last three strokes, which are clearly visible in the photograph but absent in Dr. Francke's hand-copy, are part of the date or not. In the former case, we have the year 187, corresponding, according to Dr. van Wijk, to A. D. 103-4, in the latter it is three years earlier.

The first word of l. 2 is, as stated by Professor Rapson, maharajasa. We may note the long right-hand bar of ma, which has its parallels in the Takht-i-Bāhī and Mount Banj inscriptions, and the backward bend of the vertical of ja, which reminds us of the Zeda and Ārā inscriptions and the possible ji of Jauliã 12.

The first letter of the ensuing name does not seem to be a, as assumed by Professor Rapson. There is a distinct loop at the bottom, and I think that u is to be read. Then comes an akshara which is clearly vi, though the i-stroke only just projects a little below the horizontal. The next letter is again a distinct ma, almost running into the following akshara, which is an unmistakable ka. The photograph shows a curved line running downwards from the point where ma touches the angle of ka and apparently continuing the left bar of ma. A comparison of the hand-copy, however, seems to show that there is a flaw in the stone at this point.

Then comes the most difficult akshara of the whole inscription. It consists of a va, with a short sloping cross-bar, and with a horizontal running to the left from the bottom and crossed by a broken line, vertical below and bent back towards the vertical of va above the point of crossing. At the left-hand termination of the lower horizontal there is another line, running in a curve up towards the ensuing akshara and bent backwards in a sharp angle at the lower termination, below the horizontal. The lower portion of the akshara is similar to the curious St. Andrew's cross attached to the lower vertical of phi in the coin legends of Wima Kadphises. The chief difference is that it does not cross the vertical, but is placed to the left of it. The curve at the left termination might be an i-mātrā, or the short cross-bar of va might be meant to mark an i. At all events it seems to me that the only possibility is to read vthi. Then follows sasa, and the whole name accordingly is Uvimakavthisasa.

I have no doubt that we here have before us another orthograph of the name of Kadphises II. The initial letter of his name in the coin legends is, as mentioned in the Historical Introduction, apparently vri, where the r-stroke seems to indicate a modification of the sound of v in this word. The same modification is evidently indicated in our record by prefixing u. It should be borne in mind that we do not know the etymology of the name. It is no doubt Iranian, and the Greek legend OOHMO seems to be in thorough agreement with our Uvima. With regard to Kavthisa, the dental sa, as compared with the sa of the Kharoshthī coin legends, may be compared with the  $\sigma$  of the Greek  $Ka\delta\phi i\sigma\eta s$ . Instead of vthi we might, of course, read thvi, in the same way as is usually done in the coin legend, which, according to the usual arrangement of Kharoshthī compounds, might also be read Kaphthisa, instead of Kathphisa. I prefer, however, to read Kavthisa, which form may also be reflected in the Chinese Kao-chen, i. e. in the T'ang period Kau-chien.

As pointed out in the Historical Introduction, our inscription furnishes the proof that the historical Saka era was not instituted by Kanishka, provided that it couples the

name of Wima Kadphises with the year 187 or 184. For we know that Wima Kadphises preceded Kanishka, and it is even probable that he was separated from him by an interval. And it is impossible to push the beginning of the old Saka era so far back that the year 187 or 184 can fall earlier than A. D. 78.

It also shows that the maharaja rajatiraja devaputra Khushana of the Taxila scroll, which is dated fifty years earlier, cannot well be Wima Kadphises, because it is hardly conceivable that he, who succeeded an octogenarian father, should have ruled for fifty years.

On the other hand, our inscription does not militate against my ascription of the institution of the historical Śaka era to Wima Kadphises, because that reckoning was instituted in commemoration of the overthrow of the national Indian dynasty, which had ousted the Sakas in Mālava, and there was no reason for introducing it in those provinces where the old Saka supremacy was still in force and the old Saka era had not been abolished.

I thus arrive at the following reading and interpretation.

#### TEXT

L. 1 Sam 1 100 20 20 20 20 4 [1 1 1]
2 maharajasa Uvima Kavthisasa.

#### TRANSLATION

Anno 187 (or 184), (during the reign) of the Great King Uvima Kavthisa.

There are also other Kharoshṭhī inscriptions at Khalatse, and Dr. Francke has reproduced eye-copies of four short ones, with Professor Vogel's tentative readings. No. 2 he read sakhavasa, no. 4 sasakhasa or sasatasa, while no. 5 and 6 only consist of one akshara each, viz. sa.

It is useless to discuss the reading and interpretation as long as no better materials are available. I shall only draw attention to the fact that no. 4, where the palatal s is certain, shows that the Khalatse dialect cannot have been essentially different from the usual language of Kharoshṭhī inscriptions.

#### XXX. PLATE XVI: TAXILA SILVER VASE INSCRIPTION. YEAR 191

During his excavations at Sirkap in the winter 1926-7 Sir John Marshall found a silver vase of duck shape, 7 in. high, and bearing a Kharoshṭhī inscription round the neck.

The inscribed portion is  $4\frac{1}{2}$  in. long, and the size of individual letters varies from  $\frac{2}{6}$  in. to  $\frac{1}{6}$  in. In the middle, below the handle of the vase, there is a damaged portion where about six aksharas seem to have disappeared. In other respects the inscription is in an excellent state of preservation.

The letters consist of dots punched into the surface. We may note the compound khs, which also occurs on the Patika plate; the cha, which reminds us of the Patika plate and the silver scroll, and the sa, where the upwards continuation of the leg is shorter than in the Patika plate and most closely resembles that of the sa of the silver scroll.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ZDMG, 61, p. 593, with plate II, no. 2, 4, 5, 6.

The inscription begins below the mouth with a distinct ka. There is not enough space in front of this ka for restoring [samvatsara]k[e]. Ka is evidently the first akshara of the record, and it is perhaps an abbreviation, e.g. of ka[le].

Then follow the numeral figures 1+100+20+20+20+10+1, i.e. the record is dated in the year 191, evidently of the old Saka era, and corresponding, according to the system adopted in this volume, to A.D. 107-108.

Then follows maharaja, though there are some apparent dots between ra and ja, making the ja look almost like mi.

After ja comes a damaged passage, with room for about six aksharas, which cannot be read with certainty.

The first letter seems to be *bhra*, of the same shape as in the Patika plate. Then follow two aksharas of which I cannot see anything, further traces of what looks like ni, two absolutely defaced aksharas, and an almost certain sa.

The remaining portion of the record is absolutely certain, viz. putrasa Jihonikasa Chukhsasa kshatrapasa.

Jihonika is evidently identical with the kshatrapa Zeionises, whose Kharoshthī coin legends run Manigulasa kshatrapasa putrasa kshatrapasa Jihoniasa.

Zeionises has been described as ruler of Pushkalāvatī.¹ Our inscription shows that his province was that formerly held by Liaka Kusuluka and Patika, viz. Cukhsa, the modern Chachh, of which Taxila was evidently the capital.

The coin-legends lead me to restore the damaged portion as maharajabhra[ta-Ma]ni[gula]sa putrasa. If this restoration is accepted, we learn that Zeionises' father, Manigula, was the brother of the maharaja, i. e. apparently of some dignitary of higher rank than that of a kshatrapa. Who this mahārāja was, we cannot tell with certainty. A comparison of the Khalatse inscription of the year 187 makes me inclined to think of Wima Kadphises. Now if Zeionises was the son of Wima Kadphises' brother, he might consider himself as heir apparent to the imperial power, if Wima Kadphises had no male issue. For there are, as mentioned in the Historical Introduction, indications to show that the order of succession among the Sakas sometimes passed from a ruler to his brother, and further to the brother's son. And since the name of the mahārāja is not given, it is possible that he had died at the time when our inscription was issued. In that case Zeionises would already be a candidate to the imperial throne. We have not, however, any indication in other sources to the effect that there was any Saka emperor between Wima Kadphises and Kanishka. And if Zeionises claimed the position, it may be surmised that he did not meet with success. There was apparently, after Wima Kadphises' demise, a disintegration of Kushāṇa power, similar to what seems to have taken place after the death of Moga. And it was only after the Indian Kushāṇas had joined hands with their cousins in Turkestan that the empire rose to new, and this time, much increased power.

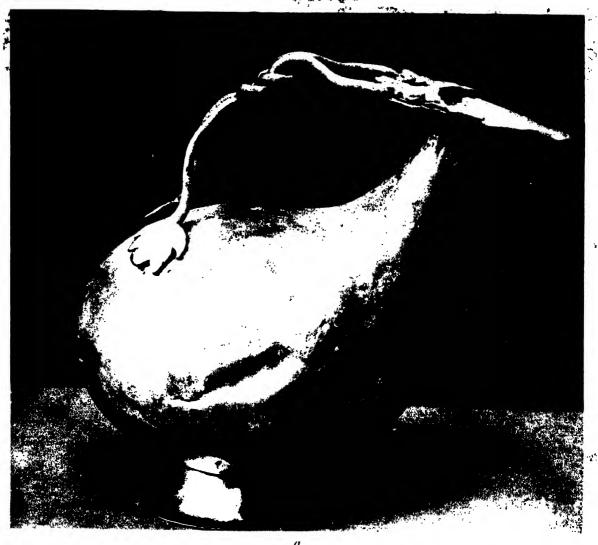
#### Text

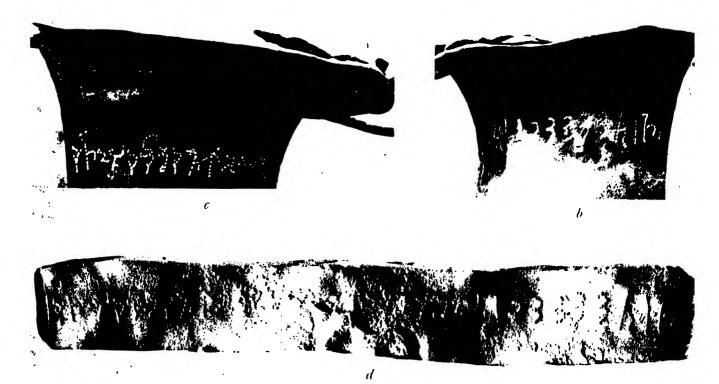
Ka 1 100 20 20 20 10 1 maharaja[bhra][ta Ma\*][ni][gula\*]sa putrasa Jihonikasa Chukhsasa kshatrapasa.

#### TRANSLATION

Year 191 (during the reign) of Jihonika, the kshatrapa of Chukhsa, the son of Manigula, the brother of the Great King.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Rapson, The Cambridge History of India, i, p. 5821.





## UNDATED TAXILA INSCRIPTIONS

Taxila was an important centre of learning, and especially of Buddhist civilization during a long period. It is therefore not to be wondered at that several inscriptions have been found in the ruins, belonging to different times. The oldest one belongs to the period when Greek rulers still held sway in the Panjāb and has been dealt with together with the oldest Kharoshṭhī records. The youngest ones seem to take us down to the fifth century of our era, and might be dealt with in connexion with the records dated in the Kanishka era. It seems, however, as if Taxila lost its political importance with the advent of the Kanishka dynasty, and it is therefore preferable to deal with the undated Taxila records in connexion with the inscriptions dated in the older Saka era.

### XXXI. PLATE XVII. 1: TAXILA GOLD PLATE INSCRIPTION

Of the Taxila ruins the ancient city of Sirkap, on the western spurs of the Hathiāl Hill, seems to be the second in point of age. According to Sir John Marshall it appears to have been in occupation during the Saka, Pahlava, and Kushāṇa periods, down to the reign of Wima Kadphises.

Outside the northern wall of the Sirkap city was a suburb, now known as Babar-Khāna, and here, to the east, is a group of remains, which Cunningham<sup>2</sup> called the Gāṅgu group. In one mound, numbered 32 by Cunningham, the villager Nūr discovered some relics, which were described by Messrs. G. D. Westropp,<sup>3</sup> Rajendralala Mitra,<sup>4</sup> Pearse,<sup>5</sup> and Cunningham.<sup>6</sup> To quote Cunningham, 'these relics consisted of a circular stone box, about 1 ft. in diameter and 3 in. in depth, beautifully turned and polished, and covered by a slab of sandstone, inside which there was a small hollow crystal figure of a hanisa or goose, containing a thin gold plate  $2\frac{3}{4}$  in. long and nearly 1 in. broad, inscribed with Ariano-Pali characters. The letters have been punched on the plate from the back, so that they appear in relief on the upper side'.

Cunningham further states that 'the circular stone box and the crystal goose are now in the British Museum, but the inscription is not with them'.

The inscription accordingly seems to have been lost, and our knowledge about it is derived from Rajendralala's reproduction, which has evidently been taken over by Cunningham, who does not appear himself to have seen the plate. It was read by Rajendralala Mitra, E. C. Bayley, Cunningham, and F. W. Thomas, and it is no. 71 in Mr. Majumdar's List.

To judge from the reproduction, Rajendrala Mitra seems to have been fully justified in stating that the letters were in an excellent state of preservation. The more it is to be regretted that the reproduction is not, as he himself admits, quite reliable. It is stated to have been prepared from a scaling-wax impression, and it is probable that what we possess is an eye-copy of this impression. It follows from what I have said above that Cunningham's plate has no independent value, being copied from Rajendralala's

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASIAR, 1912-13, p. 23.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> ASI. ii, p. 129.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Proceedings ASB, 1861, p. 413.

<sup>4</sup> JASB, xxxi, 1862, pp. 175 ff., with plate, fig. 11.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Proceedings ASB, 1865, pp. 111 ff.

<sup>6</sup> l.c., with plate LIX, no. 5.

<sup>7</sup> l.c. 8 ibidem, pp. 184 ff. 9 l.c

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> JRAS, 1916, pp. 382 ff., with a reproduction of Rajendralala's and Cunningham's plates and of the goose and the box.

These facts must be borne in mind, when we use the plate, which has been reproduced from Professor Thomas's paper. We must reckon with the possibility of mistakes.

A peculiar feature in this record is the round dot which marks the lower termination of most letters. It is evidently due to the engraver's tool.

The characters on the whole seem to confirm Sir John Marshall's dating of the site. They are, roughly, intermediate between those of the Patika and Takht-i-Bāhī inscriptions. Ta and da are not always easy to distinguish. Where ta is certain, it has the distinct forward slope which we find in the Patika plate, and the unmistakable de of 1. 3 has the forward bend of the bottom which we know from that record. Ya is broad and angular, and we may note the backward slope of the o-stroke in yo, 1. 2, which has its parallels in the Dhammapada manuscript. La has almost no bend of the projecting upper limb, as is also the case with some of the la's of the Mathurā capital. Sa is strictly angular, as in the Patika plate. The upward prolongation of the bar of sa is usually clear, and it is straight as in the Muchai, Paja, and Marguz inscriptions.

The inscription consists of three lines, and it can be restored with some approach at certainty.

L. 1. The first word is certainly sirae. Cunningham saw in this a reference to some relic of the head-bone (sirodhātu) of the Buddha, while Professor Thomas was of opinion that 'Sira is clearly the name of the place or district, now Sir Kap, in which the stūpa was. It is not necessary to suppose that the name Sir Kap contains any etymological survival of Śìrā—the common view is otherwise—nor would it be reasonable to regard the form as = (Taksha)śilā. It is no doubt a local name'.

This explanation is ingenious. It seems to me, however, that we must necessarily look for the name of the donor in the first word, which is evidently to be taken together with the ensuing participle prethavetiye. I therefore take Sirae to be the genitive of a female name Sirā. If it is not a clerical mistake for Sivae, we may perhaps think of the Khotanī-Saka word ssira, which is used to render Skr. siva.

The next word is almost certainly *bhagavato*, though -do is no doubt possible. Then comes what looks like *dhato*. The apparent o is, however, different from the o of *bhagavato*. It is slightly curved, and the bottom of ta is devoid of the usual dot. I therefore feel convinced that the plate actually had a complete u-loop and read *dhat[u]*.

The ensuing word was read prevvaveliye by Bayley and prethaveliye by Cunningham. The former adds that the sealing-wax impressions have ve, but that the e is not visible in the plate. We have no right to reject this statement. The second akshara can, of course, only be tha. Professor Thomas says: 'Although this word might find a Sanskrit equivalent in preshthāpatya, "dearest offspring", no one would seriously doubt that it is really an erroneously inscribed pratithavayati (stamped from the back), and we shall recall the errors which have been shown in Sir J. H. Marshall's silver scroll inscription from the same city. It would seem that work done in metals, or at least in the precious metals, was less reliable textually than that slowly wrought in stone'.

We must, I think, be very wary in assuming an error in the text. What Mr. Bayley had before himself in the wax impression was evidently prethavetive, and we must try to explain this form as it is. The initial preth has been explained by Professor Thomas as standing for praith and derived from pratith by dissimilation. It will be seen in the Grammatical Introduction that intervocalic t is regularly preserved as t or d in Kharoshthi inscriptions and as d in the Kharoshthi Dhammapada. The occasional writing tr, which is the rule in the Lion Capital inscriptions, may point to a fricative pronunciation, at least in some cases. And it is conceivable that such a fricative was some-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JRAS, 1926, p. 507.

times weakly sounded, so that it might be left unmarked. I have mentioned in the Grammatical Introduction that we occasionally find forms such as avhaï, Skr. abhati, phashaï, Skr. sprisati in the Dhammapada manuscript, and that we have another example of e for ati in the very word prati in the form prethavide, Skr. pratishthāpitaḥ, in the late Jamālgaṛhī inscription of the year 359, where Professor Thomas's explanation would also hold good. It does not, therefore, seem necessary to correct our pre to prati, though the form is suspect in such an old record. Prethavetiye is, in other respects, a possible form. The anusvāra is very commonly left unmarked in Kharoshṭhī records, and we are fully justified in explaining our word as standing for prethaventiye, the oblique form of the female participle prethaventi, Skr. pratishṭhāpayantī. And, in my opinion, this is the only explanation which is admissible. We must translate: of Śirā, who establishes a relic of the Lord, and, so far as I can see, the form prethavetiye definitely shows that Śirae is the name of the donor.

The last word of l. 1 is evidently matu. The angular shape of the last akshara makes madu unlikely.

L. 2. The reading is perfectly certain, if we abstract from the uncertainty regarding ta and da. Professor Thomas reads hasisa pitu hasase loodasasi atiyoha, and continues with 1. 3 dehaja ti. He takes hasase to be a mistake for hasasa and translates: In Śira, A[m]tiyoha, sister of Looda, daughter (dehajā) of a hamsi mother and a hamsa father, deposits relics of the Bhagavat.

He reminds us of the fact 'that the hainsa is white, so that it is an apt type of a spotless character... Secondly the hainsa pair is famed in poetry for its affectionate union... Thirdly, since the hainsa is a migrant, which after a season takes its departure to Lake Mānasa, ... it is a fitly chosen synonym for friends departed to a better world. And, lastly, in the language of the Upanishads... the word hainsa is a common synonym for the embodied soul, jīva'.

I agree with Professor Thomas in seeing in hainsa a veiled reference to the departed soul, but I do not think it possible to explain hasisa as the genitive of hainsī, which would be ha[in]siye on the analogy of pethavetiye. Nor do I think it likely that the genitives matu and pitu can depend on the distant dehaja, and I know of no instance in Kharoshṭhī inscriptions where ti, Skr. iti, is added at the end of a record.

With regard to the reading, I accept Professor Thomas's pitu, though pidu is also possible, but I think that we must read ta and not da after loo.

In explaining the record we must, I think, bear in mind the fact that the gold plate was actually deposited in a hainsa. Whether the plate was itself considered as a dhātu or there was another relic besides, we do not know. But at all events the deposit was made in the crystal hainsa.

Now we have the two words hasisa and hasase, which evidently mean the crystal hasisa itself. None of them is a regular form of the word hasisa, but both have been copied from the wax impression, and a strong presumption is raised in our minds that the original, be it the wax impression or the engraver's draft, had precisely one and the same form in both cases. And that can hardly have been anything else than hasasi. Hasasi would be a regular locative of hasa, the locative termination asi being well known from the Mānsehrā and Shāhbāzgarhī versions of the Asoka edict and from the Kharoshthī Dhammapada, where it is often written asa and has been wrongly explained as the genitive suffix.

We thus arrive at the conclusion that Sira deposited the relic in the *hainsa* of her mother and father, i.e. the crystal *hainsa* was to her a symbol of the souls of her departed parents, and the relics were deposited for the benefit of the parents. The idiom comes

to about the same thing as more common expressions such as matu puyae pitu puyae. The use of the symbolic hamsa, however, leads us to think more directly of a magic purpose.

With regard to the remaining portion of the inscription, I have already given Professor Thomas's reading, which I accept, only substituting ta for his da after loo l. 2.1 He suggests to explain Looda as a distorted Leontes and Atiyoha as representing Antioche, while he takes sasi to stand for Skr. svasa, sister.

If my explanation of l.  $\tau$  is accepted, we cannot look for the names of the donors in ll. 2-3. And a priori we should certainly expect to find some additional remark connected with the dedication of the relics. And such is, I think, actually the case.

I take loo to correspond to Skr. lokah and lasa to be the usual genitive of the demonstrative pronoun. In siati I see the well-known optative of the base as, to be, corresponding to Skr. syāt and to siati in the Mānsehrā inscription of the year 68.

As dehajati of 1. 3 regularly corresponds to Skr. dehajāti, corporeal birth, yoha alone remains unexplained. Yo can be the nominative masculine or neuter of the relative pronoun, Skr. yah or yad, cf. yo cha me bhuya and yo atra antara on the Wardak Vase. I identify it with Skr. yad, used as a conjunction in the sense of 'when'. But then ha must be the particle ha, which is frequently used with relatives in the old language.

It will be seen that the last sentence contains an imprecation in connexion with the relic. The explanation of the words loo tasa is not quite certain. Loka may mean 'wide space', in which case the purport would be that wide space might fall to the share of the hamsa, i.e. the soul, when it comes to a new birth. It seems to me, however, that it is more probable that tasa should be referred to dhatu, and that the meaning is: might it (sc. the hamsa) be its place (i. e. the receptacle of the dhatu), when a new birth takes place. It should be remembered that dhatu means both 'relic' and 'element'. To wish that the soul of a departed may become the receptacle of a Buddhadhātu in the next existence is, therefore, equivalent to wishing that the departed one may, in his next birth, become a Buddha.

#### TEXT

- L. 1 Sirae bhagavato dhat[u] prethav[e]tiye matu
  - 2 hasisa (hasasi) pitu hasase(-si) Loo tasa siati yo ha
  - 3 dehajati.

#### TRANSLATION

(Gift) of Sira, depositing a relic of the Lord in the hamsa of her mother, the hamsa of her father. Might it become its place when a corporeal birth comes.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;I here give the complete readings of the first editors, Rajendralala: Sirie bhagava bodhavo prajna ratiyamațu hasisapita hasasilu iva sasi atiyoha viharati; Bayley: Sirae bhagava bodhabo (or ye) preveaveltiye matuha sisa pituha sase loota sasi atyo hra tehajati; Cunningham: Sirae bhagavato dhato prethavetiye Matuha-sisa Pituha sasi Loora-sasi Atiyo hatehajati.

CUNNINGHAM



उत्प्रभिर्द्ध विश्वेष्ठ विश्वेष्ठ विश्वेष

2. TAXILA VASE

3. TAXILA LADLES

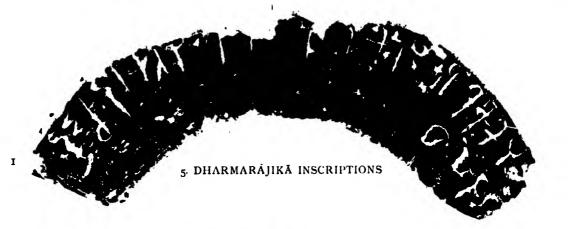




Full size

4. BEDADI LADLE





-NEW SOURSE BUT









#### XXXII. PLATE XVII. 2: TAXILA VASE INSCRIPTION

Cunningham states 1 that the villagers of Shāhpur, to the west of the Chir Tope of Taxila, had found an inscribed vase in the mound numbered 13, to the west of the village. He could not trace the vase when he was informed of the find, but he supposed it to be identical with a vase which he found in the Peshāwar Museum and which is now, without any number, in the Lahore Museum, and we have no reason for seriously doubting the correctness of this identification.

The inscription has been edited by Messrs. Dowson,<sup>2</sup> Cunningham,<sup>3</sup> and Lüders,<sup>4</sup> and it is no. 90 in Mr. Majumdar's List. It is incised round the body of the vase and is in an excellent state of preservation. The size of individual letters varies from <sup>1</sup>/<sub>4</sub> in. to <sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub> in.

The characters are Kharoshṭhī of a fairly ancient type. The top of kha is not bent down; cha is devoid of the downward prolongation of the lower curve, and the upward prolongation of the leg of sa is straight and less pronounced than in the Patika plate, two peculiarities which point to a slightly later date than that record, with which the palaeography agrees in most respects. The form Takhasilae agrees with that inscription as against the later silver scroll.

Reading and interpretation have been settled by Professor Lüders, who has also shown that we have no reason for thinking that the record is metrical, as suggested by Professor Thomas.<sup>5</sup>

#### TEXT

Sihilena Siharakshitena cha bhratarehi Takhasilae ayam thuvo pratithavito savabudhana puyae.

#### TRANSLATION

By Sihila and Siharakshita, the brothers, this stūpa was established in honour of all Buddhas, in Takshaśilā.

#### XXXIII. PLATE XVII. 3: TAXILA COPPER LADLE INSCRIPTION

The Taxila Museum contains some copper ladles, two of which contain an identical Kharoshthī inscription round the bowl. They were found during Sir John Marshall's excavations in 1920–1, 1923–4, and 1926–7 at Mahal, close to Sirkap.<sup>6</sup>

I edit the record from casts prepared for the Corpus under Sir John's directions.

The inscription has a length of  $6^7_8$  in., and the letters are from  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. to  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. high.

The characters consist of punched dots and are of about the same age as those of the Taxila vase; cf. kha without the downward bend; cha, which reminds us of the silver scroll; the forward slope of ta, and the straight prolongation of the leg of sa.

We may note the form of the name Takshasila, which is also found in the silver scroll

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASI, ii, pp. 124 ff. <sup>2</sup> JRAS, xx, 1863, p. 241, with plate 111, fig. 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> JASB, xxxii, 1863, pp. 151 and 172, with note by Dowson, p. 428; ASI, ii, 1871, p. 125, with plate LIX, fig. 3.

<sup>4</sup> Ep. Ind., viii, pp. 296 ff., with plate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> JRAS, 1906, p. 453; cf. Fleet, ibidem, pp. 711 f.; Vogel, ibidem, p. 550; Rouse, ibidem, p. 992; Grierson, ibidem, p. 993; Smith, ibidem, p. 1008.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Cf. Marshall, ASIAR, 1919-20, Pt. I, p. 20, and plate VIII, 6; 1923-4, p. 66, and plate XXVII, 8 and 9, with a reading of the inscription; N. G. Majumdar, J&PASB, xix, 1923, p. 347<sup>1</sup>; List, no. 68.

and the 1)harmarājikā inscriptions, while the Patika plate and the vase have Takhašila, and the sp for old sv in Isparaka, Skr. Isvaraka, for which Sir John reads Ikutuku.

The reading and interpretation are perfectly certain. The ladles were the gift of a certain Iśvaraka to the congregation of the four quarters and the property of the Kāśyapīyas in the North-ārāma (*Uttararama*), which was evidently situated to the north of Sirkap. The Kāśyapīyas were a branch of the Sthaviravāda school and were also reckoned to the Sarvāstivādins and considered to observe the Dhutāngas more rigidly than other sects.<sup>1</sup>

#### TEXT

Isparakasa daņamukho samghe chatudise Utararame Takshasilae Kasaviaņa parigra[he].

#### TRANSLATION

Gift of Iśvaraka to the congregation of the four quarters in the Uttarārāma of Takshaśilä, in the acceptance of the Kāśyapīyas.

#### XXXIV. PLATE XVII. 4: BEDADI COPPER LADLE INSCRIPTION

In my edition of the Shahdaur inscription I have drawn attention to some indications which may point to a certain connexion between Taxila and the ancient Uraśā country. They are strengthened by a find which comes from the small village of Bedadi, on the Siran River, some twelve miles by road to the north-north-west of Mänsehrā, which shows that the Kaśyapīyas had a settlement there, which may have had some connexion with the Uttarārāma of Taxila.

According to Sir Aurel Stein <sup>2</sup> the site seems to be of considerable antiquity. Among the coins found there, there are numerous specimens of the coinage of Azes and the Hindu Shāhīs of Kābul, a fine silver coin of Augustus, several Soter Megas coins, and also coins of the early Kushāṇas.

About 1920, Mr. T. B. Copeland, Deputy Commissioner of the Hazāra District, bought an inscribed copper ladle from a local villager, who stated that he had found it at Bedadi. In 1922 he brought the ladle to England, where it was examined by Professor F. W. Thomas. The ladle has since been presented by Mr. Copeland to the Peshāwar Museum.

In 1924 photographs of the ladle were sent to Mr. Majumdar, who published the inscription with a plate.<sup>3</sup> He states that the ladle is 9 inches in length and weighs 2'7 oz. The bowl is 1'4 inches high and has a diameter of 1'9 inches. The inscription runs round the bowl and the letters consist of punched dots.

The characters seem to be earlier than Kanishka. We may note the angular ka, the cursive cha, the somewhat square ya, the angular sa, the absence of the upward prolongation of the leg of sa and the loop-shape of anteconsonantic r. The nearest parallels to several of these forms are found in the Peshāwar Museum inscription of the year 168, where the ka is, however, more cursive.

Mr. Majumdar begins with the letters just to the left of the handle, where we read sanighe chadudi...  $\delta e$ , with some dots punched between di and  $\delta e$ . It seems as if the engraver has made a mistake and begun to punch the dots of the akshara u following after  $\delta e$ , omitting  $\delta e$ , and that he has afterwards cancelled these dots. We shall find a similar cancelling later on.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Kern, Der Buddhismus, Leipzig, 1884, vol. ii, pp. 18, 497, 551 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> ASIFC, 1904-5, p. 18.

<sup>3</sup> J&PASB, xix, 1923, pp. 345 ff., with plate 14.

It is not easy to decide where we should begin. Usually, however, where the name of the donor is mentioned, it comes first. It would also seem to be the natural thing to hold the handle in the left hand, when beginning to read the legend. I would therefore start with the words to the right of the handle, where we have Sangharakshi dasa da]na. The last aksharas are uncertain. The da of dasa seems probable, though Mr. Majumdar reads ta. Between dasa and na there is room for two letters, and what can be seen in the photograph looks more like na than da. The reading is, consequently, conjectural.

Then follow the words sainghe chadudise and further Urasaraje, i.e. Skr. Urasaraje, in the Urasaraje, i.e. Skr. Urasaraje, in the Urasaraje, i.e. Skr. Urasaraje, in the Urasaraje, in the Urasaraje, in connexion with the Shahdaur inscription, that early rulers in Hazara used the title rajan, and our record points to a similar state of things at a somewhat later period. The form Urasa is of interest, as showing that the name was pronounced with a palatal s in the country itself.

Then comes what looks like acharyanena, but I have little doubt that the apparent ne is only a cancelled na.

The next word is clearly Kashyaviyana, which Mr. Majumdar rightly identifies with the Kasaviana of the Taxila ladle. The writing shya for sa, i.e. ss, is of interest and finds its explanation in the fact that shy regularly became ss in the dialect; cf. the frequent manusa, Skr. manushya in the Kharoshthī Dhammapada.

#### TEXT

Samgharakshi[dasa da]na samghe chadudise Urasaraje acharya(ne)na Kashyaviyana.

#### TRANSLATION

Gift of Samgharakshita to the congregation of the four quarters, in the Uraśā kingdom, of the Kāśyapīya teachers.

#### XXXV. PLATE XVII. 5: DHARMARĀJIKĀ INSCRIPTIONS

During his excavations at Taxila in 1913 and 1914, Sir John Marshall explored the great Chir Tope, the so-called Dharmarājikā, and several minor buildings surrounding it.

To the south-west of the great stupa was a structure, apparently a chapel, constructed in the large diaper masonry which, according to Sir John, came into use about the close of the first century A.D.

Six fragmentary inscriptions were recovered on objects found in this place and published by Sir John.<sup>1</sup>

The characters are later than those of the silver scroll, but apparently older than Kanishka. Ta has the forward slope and dha the deep indenture of older records; mu has not been turned on the side, but differs from the oldest forms in lengthening the left upright; sa occasionally has traces of the upward continuation of the leg; rya has a comparatively late form, with a square ya and a double-loop for the anteconsonantic r.

I retain Sir John's numbering of the records.

#### No. 1

This inscription is inscribed on the side of a lamp and consists of two lines, 13 in. and  $2\frac{1}{4}$  in. long respectively, with letters  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. to  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in. high.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASIAR, 1912-13, pp. 17 ff., and plate XIV; Majumdar, List, nos. 73-6.

The first word is *Takshailaami*, which is evidently a slip instead of *Takshasilaami*, the locative of *Takshasilaa*, Skr. *Tākshasilaka*, belonging to Takshasilā.<sup>1</sup>

The next word was read *dhamaraie* by Sir John, and this reading is probably right. There are traces of a cross-bar through the right bar of ma, so that we might think of reading rma as in Jauliã, but the traces are not sufficiently certain. The e-stroke of the final akshara is placed quite at the bottom, and I could not see it in the original. It is therefore possible that we should read a and assume that a mi has stood in the broken space between this and the following letter, so that we should have to read *dhamarai-ami*. But then we should have to assume that the *i*-stroke of mi was unusually short. I therefore read *dhamaraie*.

The ensuing akshara was read *dhra* by Sir John. It seems to me, however, that the apparent traces of a r-stroke, which protrude a little above the bottom, run on towards the preceding letter and simply represent an unevenness in the stone. I therefore read *dha*. The second letter must have stood above the broken edge and must have been ma. If the ensuing downward curve of the edge follows the outline of a da and the short stroke to the left of the break is the bottom of a sa, we might restore *Dhamadasa*, Skr. *Dharmadāsa*. Of the next akshara we have the lower portion of a vertical and traces of an i-stroke running obliquely down from the edge, so that we may think of bhi. Then follow a curve which reminds us of ksha and a vertical which may have had a loop at the bottom. It is therefore possible to read kshu. The next letter consists of a vertical, with an o-stroke at the bottom and the beginning of a curve at the top. With every reserve I therefore restore the whole as *Dhamadasabhikshuno*, though the usual genitive of bhikshu in Kharoshṭhī inscriptions is bhikshusa.

Then comes a broken akshara which looks like the lower part of an e, and afterwards a vertical with traces of a curve above, so that sha is possible. I accordingly read esha.

The last word of l. 1 is saputrasa.

Then follows l. 2, danamukhe. The bottom of the last akshara is damaged, and there may have been an o-mātrā as well, as in the Jauliā inscription 2. We should certainly expect danamukho in a Taxila record, but the e-stroke is too pronounced to be accidental.

#### **Text**

- L. 1 Taksha[ś\*]ilaami dhamaraï[e Dhamadasabhikshun]o [esha] saputrasa
  - 2 danamukhe(o).

#### TRANSLATION

In the Dharmarājikā compound of Takshaśilā this is the gift of the friar Dharmadāsa.

#### No. 2

This inscription is found on two fragments of a frieze, and beginning and end are missing. The length of the record is 18 in., and the size of individual letters varies between  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. and  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in.

The first akshara of which traces remain cannot be made out. It seems to have been provided with an *u*-mātrā and may have been du. In that case we might think of restoring madupidue, comparing matupitae of the Pājā inscription and assuming that du had been influenced by the preceding du of madu. But I prefer to leave the letter untranslitérated.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Sir John, who originally read the last two aksharas as aga, accepted my reading, when we examined the original together in 1925.

The remaining portion of the inscription is clear, but I cannot explain the final word hodreana, after which there are traces of another akshara, apparently with an o-mātrā.

#### TEXT

... e puyae at[va]ņasa ñatimitrasalohidaņa arogadakshiņae Hodreana.o....

#### TRANSLATION

in honour of ..., for the bestowal of health on his relatives, friends and blood-relations, ... of the Hodreas.

#### No. 3

This incomplete record, found on a small fragmentary stone, is  $5\frac{1}{2}$  in. long, with letters  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. to  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. high.

The first word is *mitrae*, apparently the genitive of a female name ending in -mitrā. Then follows imdra, for which Sir John read imda. The r-stroke is, I think, certain. The next two aksharas are quite defaced, but the first may have been s. After the break we seem to have sa, and I think it possible that we have to read Imdrasenasa. Then follows bha and an akshara which Sir John read rva. The top is, however, damaged, and the top-line seems to slope downwards. If it were continued to the left and bent downwards still more, we should have rya. With every reserve I therefore restore bharyae.

#### TEXT

... mitrae Imdra[sena\*]sa bhar[yae].

#### TRANSLATION

Of ... mitrā, the wife of Indrasena.

#### No. 4

Another incomplete inscription found on a fragmentary frieze,  $3\frac{3}{4}$  in. long, with letters  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. to 1 in. high.

Sir John read . . o(?) senasa jiba. The first aksharas are much defaced, and i is hardly possible to restore them with certainty. A comparison of No. 3, however, makes me inclined to read Imdrasenasa. Then follows an akshara which is quite defaced. It seems to be provided with an u-loop, and the existing traces may point to ku. The next akshara can hardly be ji, because there is a distinct stroke joining the lower part of the vertical at an angle. We must evidently read ti. The letter ta is extremely rare in Kharoshthī inscriptions and has only been traced in the Sui Vihār record in the word kuţimbini. Intervocalic ! probably became d in the dialect, and its retention in Sui Vihār seems to be due to the marked Sanskritization of that record. The same has probably been the case in our inscription. The last akshara is damaged, but evidently b. The top-stroke may be part of an i-mātrā, and the upward termination of ba may have stood exactly in the break. There is a blurred line in front of the vertical, but, as it is absent in Sir John's plate, it is probably accidental. I therefore read bi and restore kuțibinia, cf. Pāli kuțimba. The persons mentioned are evidently the same as in inscription 3.

**TEXT** 

[Imdra]senasa [ku]tib[i][nia\*]...

Translation of the wife of Indrasena.

#### No. 5 and 6

These only consist of single letters and are evidently, as stated by Sir John, only masons' marks, ba and tha, respectively.

### XXXVI. PLATE XVIII: JAULIA INSCRIPTIONS

The Buddhist remains near the village of Jaulia were excavated in the years 1916-18.1

They comprise a monastery, one great and several small stupas, arranged in different courts. The older parts of the walls of the monastery and the lower courses of another wall show the large coarse diaper masonry, which, according to Sir John, came into fashion during the second century A. D. Elsewhere we find the semi-ashlar masonry, which was in use from the third until the fifth century.

The monuments were richly decorated with relievos and sculptures in stucco, of a relatively late date, about the fifth century according to Sir John. And some of them were provided with Kharoshṭhī inscriptions.<sup>2</sup>

On the north side of the stūpa, in one of the bays on the eastern side of the ascending stairs was found a seated Buddha, and on the pedestal below an ex-voto inscription, No. 1.

In a small stūpa, numbered A 15, to the east of the main stūpa, 'the plinth is faced throughout with large diaper masonry... and it is likely that this is one of the earliest among the small stūpas, although it was no doubt refaced and redecorated at a later date'. The plinth is decorated with a series of figures of the Buddha, and under six of them are found Kharoshṭhī inscriptions, viz. No. 2 on the east face; No. 3 on the west face; No. 4 and 5 on the south face; No. 6 and 7 on the north face.

Finally, there is a small stūpa, numbered D 5, to the south-west of the main stūpa, where the decoration is sadly damaged, but where some of the images are provided with inscriptions: 8, on the east face; 9 and 10, on the south face, and 11 and 12 on the west face. 'The plinth appears to have undergone renovation, and some of the images may be later than the background to which they have been applied.'

Sir John Marshall draws attention to the interest which these inscriptions possess for the history of Kharoshṭhī. They show that that alphabet was still occasionally used in the fourth and fifth centuries A. D. The inscriptions and the plaster reliefs of A 15 and D 5 are stated to be so fresh that there cannot be any 'doubt that they had not long been executed when they were buried from view, and, inasmuch as the latter event cannot be placed earlier than the second half of the fifth century A. D., it follows that the earliest date to which we can assign the inscriptions is about the beginning of the same century'.

Sir John is of opinion that 'at that time Kharoshthī was still the ordinary script of the townspeople of Taxila, just as Prākrit was their ordinary vernacular, and it need not surprise us that the common speech and the common script were employed in donative records intended to be read and understood by all and sundry who might see them'.

It is perhaps unsafe to infer too much from the occurrence of Kharoshthī votive inscriptions in the beginning of the fifth century. The find of a Sanskrit manuscript in Brahmī script in the Jauliā ruins shows that the monks had, by that time, taken up the study of Sanskrit and were conversant with the Brāhmī alphabet. From the history of the Kalpanāmanditikā we can draw the conclusion that this development had already set in in the second century.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Natesa Aiyar, ASIFC, 1916–17, pp. 2 ff.; Marshall, MASI, no. 7, Calcutta, 1921; A Guide to Taxila, pp. 112 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Published by Sir John, MASI, no. 7, pp. 6 ff., with plate XI; cf. Majumdar, List, nos. 77-89.
<sup>3</sup> Cf. Heinrich Lüders, *Bruchstucke der Kalpanāmanditikā des Kumāralāta*, Leipzig, 1926.

On the other hand, the aim of the votive inscriptions was not, perhaps, that they should be read and understood, but to ensure religious merit through the mystic power of the aksharas. Only very few of those who saw the images were able to read the inscriptions.

We might therefore think it possible that such ex-voto inscriptions might have been written in Kharoshthī even after that alphabet had ceased to be the common one in Taxila, in imitation of older inscriptions of the same kind, which would easily lead people to think that Kharoshthī was more efficacious than Brāhmī in such inscriptions, which were more or less some kind of charms, and which would be still more considered as such, if Kharoshthī had ceased to be the usual script. It is even conceivable that some of the inscriptions are copies of older ones, executed when the old images and decorations were restored or repaired.

An examination of the palaeography of the Jaulia records makes me inclined towards the last-mentioned explanation. There is a striking lack of uniformity in the letters, and old and new forms occur side by side, though the general impression is that the records are late.

E has the e-stroke at the bottom of the vertical in 7, just as in one of the Dharmarājikā records.

Ka has the square shape in 11 and 12, but is rounded in 5.

Kha has a peculiar angular shape, which reminds us of the Zeda and Māṇikiāla inscriptions, and still later records such as the Pālāṭū Dherī and Jamālgaṛhī pedestals. We may note, in this connexion, the curious combination of an e- and an e-stroke in danamukheo, 2.

Ksha has a peculiar pointed shape of the upper curve in bhikshusa, inscription 4, side by side with the regular shape in Budharakshi[dasa]. The u-mātrā of bhikshusa is a complete loop in 7; in 2 it consists of an upward bend towards the left, in 4 of a bend towards the right, and in 5 it looks like an o-stroke.

Ja has an irregular shape, with a backwards bend of the vertical, in 12, if the reading is correct.

Na and na are used promiscuously; thus dana in 2, 4, 5, dana in 7, 8, 10, 12.

Ta has usually the same shape as in the silver scroll. Note that the o-mātrā is regularly placed in to in 11, 12, 13, but consists of a horizontal stroke parallel to the upper horizontal in 9.

The e-stroke of de in inscription 2 has a peculiar place above the upper curvature.

The shape of mu shows great variety. We have a square, standing, form in 2 and 12, a vertical with a curve in 7; a mu raised on the end in 5, and a sloping one in 10.

Sa has the upward prolongation of the leg in 3, 7, and once in 2, while it is absent in 2, 4, 5.

Hu in 7 is quite abnormal, the u-mātrā being simply a continuation of the lower termination back towards the upright.

The compound rm looks almost like shu in 6; in 5 it reminds us of thu; in 1 we have an ordinary ma with a sloping curve across the right bar.

From this great inconsistency it seems natural to infer that Kharoshṭhī only survived in reminiscences, and that the individual writers tried their best in order to imitate old forms.

#### No. 1

Incomplete,  $8\frac{1}{2}$  in. long, with letters 1 in. to 2 in. high, read *Dhammaṇadisa Budhamitra* by Sir John and *Dhamaratisa Budhamitra*[sa\*] by Mr. Majumdar. I read the second akshara as rma. It is slightly different from the initial akshara of the

Sui Vihār and Ārā records, where the cross-bar, which evidently only marks the beginning of the record, is straight, while in our letter it is a curve. We may compare the *rma* of 5 and 6.

Also the third akshara is peculiar, because the backward curve is little pronounced. I think, however, that na is more likely than ra, because ra is more angular in other Jaulia inscriptions; because a similar na is perhaps found in 7, and because Dharmanadin actually occurs in Buddhist literature. Dharmanadi, i. e. Dharmanadin, rejoicing in the Dharma, was probably an honorific title.

The final tra is damaged, but certain, and we can, with great probability, restore the remaining portion of the record.

TEXT

Dharmanadisa Budhamitra[sa bhikshusa danamukho\*].

TRANSLATION

Gift of the friar Buddhamitra Dharmanandin.

Inscriptions 2-7 have been found in the stupa numbered A 15.

No. 2

Consists of three parts,  $4\frac{1}{4}$  in.,  $3\frac{1}{4}$  in., and  $4\frac{3}{4}$  in. respectively, with letters  $1\frac{3}{4}$  in. to  $2\frac{1}{4}$  in.,  $3\frac{1}{4}$  in. to  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in., and  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. to  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in. high, respectively. Mr. Majumdar separates it into two records, nos. 78 and 79, but an inspection of the original shows that the three statues enclosed by the inscription are the donation of one and the same donor.

The reading is perfectly certain. We may note the unusual position of the e-mātrā in Budhadevasa, the incomplete u-loop of ksku in bhikshusa, and the apparent e-stroke in addition to the o-mātrā in danamukho.

**TEXT** 

Saghamitrasa Budhadevasa bhiksh[u]sa danamukh(e)o.

TRANSLATION

Gift of the friar Buddhadeva Samghamitra (the friend of the order).

No. 3

23 in. long, with letters 1 in. to 3 in. high. Only one word.

Техт

Shamanamitrasa.

TRANSLATION

(Gift of) Śramaņamitra.

No. 4

 $13\frac{1}{2}$  in. long, with letters 1 in. to  $2\frac{8}{8}$  in. high. The first word is Budharakshida[sa], though Budharakshita[sa] is possible. Then follows an open space, where nothing has ever been written, and *bhikshusa*, with a misshaped kshu, and, finally, danamukho, where, nowever, the na is defaced and the mu so indistinct that its shape cannot be made out.

Text

Budharakshi[dasa] bhi[kshusa] da[namu]kho.

TRANSLATION

Gift of the friar Buddharakshita.

#### No. 5

 $15\frac{1}{2}$  in. long, with letters  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. high. Sir John read the first word as *Dhaṇamitrasa*, but the second akshara is evidently rma. Then follows *bhikshusa*, with an irregular u-mātrā consisting only of a projecting bar, and a damaged sa; [na]garaka[sa], and danamukho, with a da, which looks like a na.

#### **TEXT**

Dharmamitrasa bhiksh[usa na]garaka[sa] danamukho.

## Translation Gift of Dharmamitra, the friar from Nagara.

#### No. 6

16 in. long, with letters  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. to 2 in. high. Sir John read the first word as Dhanusha..., but again the second letter is evidently rma. Of the third only the top of a vertical, surmounted by a horizontal, remains. It may have been a bha or a bha. The next letter must have stood in the ensuing break, where there is only room for a short akshara. Then follows the lower part of a vertical, which we can confidently restore as sa. The whole may have been Dharmabhutisa.

Then come the ends of two verticals, which must represent the bottom of a *bhi*; an almost complete *kshu*, an open space, where nothing seems to have been written; traces of a *sa*; a break with room enough for three letters, of which the second seems to have ended in a long upright, and, finally, part of a *kho*. We may restore the whole as follows:

#### TEXT

Dharma[bhutisa\*] [bhi]kshusa [danamu\*]kho.

### TRANSLATION Gift of the friar Dharmabhūti.

#### No. 7

 $14\frac{3}{4}$  in. long, with letters 1 in. to 2 in. high. The first word was read as *Rahulasa* by Sir John, and this reading is probably right, though the u of hu is quite irregular, consisting of a bar from the bottom of ha up to the vertical. It should be borne in mind that the name  $R\bar{a}hula$  figures in lists of old Sarvāstivāda teachers and would be quite likely also in later times.

Then follows vanaeasa, which Sir John translates 'of Vanaya'. Mr. Majumdar translates 'of Vanāyu', which, he says, has been identified with Bannu or with Arabia. If I am right in assuming that the Jauliã records are partly copies of older inscriptions, we may, however, reckon with the possibility of a clerical mistake. If we, further, bear in mind the fact that the Sarvāstivādins had a Vinaya of their own, and that the front leaf of a Tibetan manuscript of the Sarvāstivāda Vinaya, examined by Csoma Körösi, has a picture representing the Buddha with Śāriputra and Rāhula on his two sides,¹ we become inclined to think that vanaeasa has been misread for venaïasa, the e of ve having been overlooked and the i misread as e. Venaïa corresponds to Skr. vainayika, and Pāli venayika, which is explained by Kachchāyana² to mean 'versed in the Vinaya'.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Nalinaksha Dutt, Early History of the Spread of Buddhism and the Buddhist Schools, London [1925], p. 282.

<sup>2</sup> Ed. Senart, p. 391 (p. 189 of the reprint).

There are, so far as I can see, some distinct indications that our record is a copy of an older one. In the first place, the sa everywhere shows the prolongation of the lower vertical up towards the top, which is characteristic of old Kharoshṭhī. Then we have the cerebral n in the last word of the inscription, danamukho, which also has a mu of the shape which we find in the Tīrath inscription.

The remaining portion of the record is beyond doubt.

Техт

Ra[hu]lasa v[e\*]nae(i)asa bhikshusa daṇamukho.

TRANSLATION

Gift of Rāhula, the friar versed in the Vinaya.

The remaining inscriptions are found in the stupa numbered D 5.

No. 8

 $10\frac{1}{2}$  in. long, with letters 1 in. to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. high. Much damaged. The first visible traces consist of a vertical, which may be part of a mi, followed by a curve, which may have been the lower part of a tra. Then comes a defaced portion, with sufficient room for three or four aksharas, the last of which has left some traces of an upper curve and a vertical, so that it is possible to read kshu. Then comes the lower portion of a letter, which may have been sa; dana; a defaced spot sufficient for one akshara, and, finally, kho. I tentatively restore the legend as follows:

TEXT

[Dharma\*][m]i[t]ra[sa bhi\*][kshusa] dana[mu]kho.

TRANSLATION

Gift of the friar Dharmamitra.

No. 9

to in. long, with letters  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in. to 2 in. high. The first akshara has disappeared and the two following ones are damaged, but can be made out to be *savo*, so that we can restore *Kasavo*, Skr. *Kasyapah*. Then comes *tathagato*, with the *o*-stroke of the final akshara placed irregularly as a horizontal projection from the middle of the leg.

What follows was read as sa...sa by Sir John, and it is hardly possible to improve on this reading. The first akshara seems to be s. Of the second a vertical remains. The apparent projection to the right seems to represent damage to the plaster coating. Then come traces which may represent ka, bha, or pa, and further a distinct ha, followed by sa and apparently sa. I cannot make anything out of this state of things.

TEXT

[Kaśav]o tathagato s . . . . hasa śa . . . .

TRANSLATION

Kāśyapa the Tathāgata . . .

No. 10

Fragment, 6 in. long, with letters  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. high. There are traces of four aksharas, which may perhaps be *savasa da*, and two distinct letters, viz. *namu*. We may perhaps restore as follows:

Техт [Kaśavasa da]ņamu[kho]. Translation Gift of Kāśyapa.











In that case Kāśyapa must be the name of the donor, and it is possible that his designations preceded in the broken portion at the beginning.

No. 11

7 in. long, with letters  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in. to  $1\frac{6}{8}$  in. high. Perfectly legible.

TEXT

Kaśavo tathagato.

Translation Kāsyapa, the Tathāgata.

#### No. 12

14 in. long, with letters  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. to  $1\frac{3}{4}$  in. high. The beginning is quite clear: Sakamu tathagato, which evidently stands for Sakamuni tathagato. The omission of the akshara m perhaps points to the inscription being a copy of an older record. Sir John read the remaining portion as jinaesa dana[mukho], translating the whole as 'Sākyamuni Tathāgata, lord of Jinas—a pious gift'. I have some doubts about this reading. The top of the first akshara looks like the top of cha or chha, but it may be a distorted ji. The second looks more like ra than na. Besides, the dental na would make some difficulty in face of the distinct na which follows. The third letter is certainly e, but the fourth is much shorter than the sa of Sakamu and is more likely to be ya. The fifth seems to be la and not da. The sixth is certainly na. The seventh has a hook protruding from a vertical and bears no similarity to the mu of Sakamu. The existing traces point to ka, pa, or tha. The last letter, finally, consist of a vertical with remnants of the anteconsonantic r-loop at the bottom and may be rva. We might think of reading chirae yatanapurva, Skr. chirāya yatnapūrva, or Jivae Yatanabharya., but I do not venture to deviate from Sir John.

#### TEXT

Śakamu[ni\*] tathagato ji(?)na(?)eśa(?) da(?)namukho(?).

TRANSLATION

Śākyamuni, the Tathāgata, lord of Jinas, a gift.

#### No. 13

Received as copied in the same stūpa D 5; not previously noticed. Only a fragment,  $6\frac{1}{2}$  in. long, with letters 1 in. to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. high. The record is so damaged that I refrain from any attempt at reading it.

#### No. 14

Received as hailing from Jaulia and as unidentified. Bears the number d. No. 1564. One letter and part of a second one: to sa (or, ya).

#### XXXVII. PLATES XIX, XX: MINOR TAXILA INSCRIPTIONS

The excavations at Sirkap, which yielded the silver vase containing the Zeionises inscription of the year 191, have also brought to light several other antiquities bearing Kharoshthī inscriptions, which can conveniently be dealt with in this place.

#### 1-2. Inscribed silver cups

Sk. 4081/24, excavated in the year 1926-7, are two silver cups, 54 in. in diameter, apparently meant for keeping grain or flowers. Each of them contains a Kharoshthī legend, giving the name of the donor.

There is no difference in the letters of the two copies. They consist of dots punched into the surface, and the bottom of the aksharas is bent and twisted in various ways. In the case of sa the result is a letter which reminds us of sya. This letter only occurs in the genitive termination asa, so that it is possible to think of sya. We shall see, however, below in No. 3 that the same sign there occurs for an initial s, where sya is out of the question. It therefore seems more probable that we have before us a modified, perhaps a voiced s. I shall write s(y)a.

There is no upward continuation of the leg of sa. Nevertheless there cannot be much doubt that the inscriptions are about contemporaneous with the Jihonika record.

The reading is absolutely certain: Theütaras(y)a Thavaraputras(y)a, of Theütara, the son of Thavara.

There can hardly be any doubt that *Theütara* is the Greek name Theodoros, which we have found in the form *Theüdora* on the Swāt vase and as *Thaïdora* in the Kāldarra inscription. The writing t for d probably finds its explanation in the usual voicing of intervocalic t, and a, i.e.  $\bar{a}$  for Greek omega, does not present any difficulty.

Thavara can hardly be a Greek name, but may represent Skr. sthāvara.

TEXT

Theütaras(y)a Thavaraputras(y)a.

TRANSLATION

(Gift) of Theodoros, the son of Thavara.

3. Inscribed silver plate with three legs

Sk. 4081/20, found in the year 1926-7, is a rectangular silver plate,  $8\frac{1}{2}$  in. by 6 in., with three legs, probably intended for offerings.

The back contains a short Kharoshthī inscription, with letters consisting of punched dots. The characters are of the same kind as in Nos. 1 and 2, and the sa has the terminating loop which seems to represent a subscript y, so that we should perhaps read sya. The same sign is, however, also used as an initial, and I shall transliterate s(y)a. It should be noted that there is, in this record, a distinct upwards prolongation of the lower part of sa.

The first word is *Mumjukritas(y)a*, of Mumjukrita. I do not know any such name. In No. 4 we shall find it again, in the form *Mimjukrita*, which shows that the first vowel was probably difficult to render, i.e. the name is probably un-Indian. The last part, *krita*, is perhaps the Greek *kritos* in names such as *Demokritos*.

Then follows sya 20 dra 1. There can hardly be any doubt that sya and dra are abbreviations of satera, drakhma, Greek στατήρ, δραχμή, respectively, and that the value of the silver plate is here given.

It is of interest that the Greek word stater has here, as in Turkestan, been borrowed in the form satera. Professor Thomas has quoted some examples of its use in the Kharoshthī Documents from Niya, and in one of them, no. 43, the word is written s(r)adera, i.e. with the modified s, which perhaps denotes a voiced pronunciation. This coincidence adds some probability to the explanation suggested above that sya stands for a voiced s, though it is difficult to understand how the s of satera could become voiced.

Text Mumjukritas(y)a s(y)a 20 dra 1.

TRANSLATION

(Gift) of Mumjukrita, 20 staters, 1 drakhm.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JRAS, 1924, pp. 671 f.; cf. 1926, p. 507, and Konow, Acta Orientalia, vi, pp. 255 f.

#### SIRKAP INSCRIPTIONS

1. SILVER CUP



2. SILVER CUP



3. SILVER PLATE



4. CIRCULAR PLATE



5. SILVER SIEVE



6. VOLUTE BRACKET









#### 4. Inscribed circular silver plate

No. 4081/21, found in the year 1926-7, is a circular silver plate, 8\frac{3}{4} in. in diameter, with the centre raised and ending in a knot. The plate was probably intended to hold offerings.

On the outside is a Kharoshthī inscription, with letters punched in dots into the silver. It is of the same kind as in No. 3 above, but the lower part of sa here ends in a bend and not in a loop, wherefore we can only read sa. The reading is perfectly clear. The form *Mimjukrita* has already been mentioned. Instead of the dra for drakhme of No. 3 we here find dha, but it would be unsafe to base any conclusions on this writing.

#### TEXT

Mimjukritasa sa 20 10 dha 2.

#### TRANSLATION

(Gift) of Mimjukrita, 30 staters, 2 drakhms.

#### 5. Inscribed silver sieve

Sk. 4081/19, found in the year 1926-7, is a round conical silver sieve, 8 in. in upper diameter, with two handles. The upper border is of solid silver, the sieve itself is made of plaited silver wire. On the outside, just below the rim, runs a Kharoshṭhī legend, with letters consisting of punched dots.

The aksharas are of the same kind as in the above inscriptions. The sa of the termination asa can be read as sya and has the upwards continuation of the leg.

The reading is not subject to doubt. It runs Gomanadaputras(y)a  $\mathcal{F}hamdanamas(y)a$ , where it can only be questioned whether the last na should not be read as nam. I cannot identify these names; the initial jha of the second one points to the conclusion that they are not Indian.

#### TEXT

Gomanadaputras(y)a Jhamdanamas(y)a.

#### TRANSLATION

(Gift) of Jhamdanama, the son of Gomanada.

#### 6. Inscribed volute bracket

No. 1457, excavated in the year 1926-7, is a volute bracket representing a kneeling figure, with folded hands,  $5\frac{1}{2}$  in. high, with a base,  $2\frac{3}{4}$  in. long, which runs backwards from the bottom of the sculpture.

The back bears a Kharoshthī inscription, and letters are also found on the top of the base, running backwards from the bottom of the sculpture, and on the proper right side of the base, where they run upwards.

The aksharas are stiff, but evidently of the same age as in the records dealt with above. The leg of sa has a distinct upwards prolongation. The dental n is used as an initial, while n is written between vowels.

The arrangement of the legend is peculiar. On the back we read, beginning from above pitu puyae, then after a short interval, savatratena niyatito vihare mata, where the ya of niyatito and the re of vihare are slightly mutilated. On the top of the base we find devadato, followed by some blurred marks which do not seem to be parts of letters. The legend on the right side of the base is savatratena ni, i.e. it is identical with part of the inscription on the back.

It is evident that we must read the legend on the back as Savatratena niyatito vihare matapitu puyae, and the repetition of the aksharas savatratena ni on the base seems to be meant as an indication that the record begins with Savatratena and not with pitu puyae.

With regard to the remaining word *Devadato*, we may doubt whether it is the name of some person, different from the donor, e.g. of the navakarmika, or a designation of the sculpture. If the kneeling figure is a Nāga, we might think of the name Devadatta applied to a Nāga in the Bhāgavata Purāṇa.

#### TEXT

Savatratena niyatito vihare matapitu puyae Devadato.

#### TRANSLATION

Presented by Sarvatrāta in the Vihāra, in honour of (his) mother and father, Devadatta.

PLATE XX contains reproductions of some seals and dies, and of older epigraphical fragments found at Taxila.

#### 1. Inscribed gold ring

Sk. 194/8 is a plain gold finger-ring, 63 in. in diameter, with flattened bezel, engraved with Nandipada symbol and a Kharoshthī legend, which Sir John Marshall read as Sadralasa (?). To judge from photographs and a cast the first two aksharas are much defaced. The second seems to me to be dha. With great reserve I therefore read:

Text Sadhalasa. Translation Of Sadhala.

#### 2. Inscribed gold hoop finger-ring

Sk. 194/10 is a gold hoop finger-ring, 7 in. in diameter, with oval bezel enclosing silver inlay and containing a legend in two lines,2 one in Brāhmī, the other in Kharoshṭhī.

#### TEXT

Mahayasaputrasa Manavasa.

#### TRANSLATION

Of Mänava, the son of Mahāyaśa.

#### 3. Inscribed copper ring

A finger-ring of copper, <sup>3</sup> in. in diameter, engraved with a sleeping lion and a Kharoshṭhī inscription, has been described by Sir John Marshall,<sup>3</sup> who read the inscription as Mahajanaputra Dhaladapriyasa. The accompanying plate seems to me to show:

#### Техт

Mahajhanaputrasa Jhanapriyasa.

#### TRANSLATION

Of Dhyanapriya, the son of Mahadhyana.

#### 4. Rectangular copper seal

Sk. 1556 of 1925 is a rectangular copper seal,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in.  $\times \frac{1}{32}$  in., showing a humped bull, above which there is a Kharoshthī legend, which seems to run Yavalatrasa or Yavaletrasa.

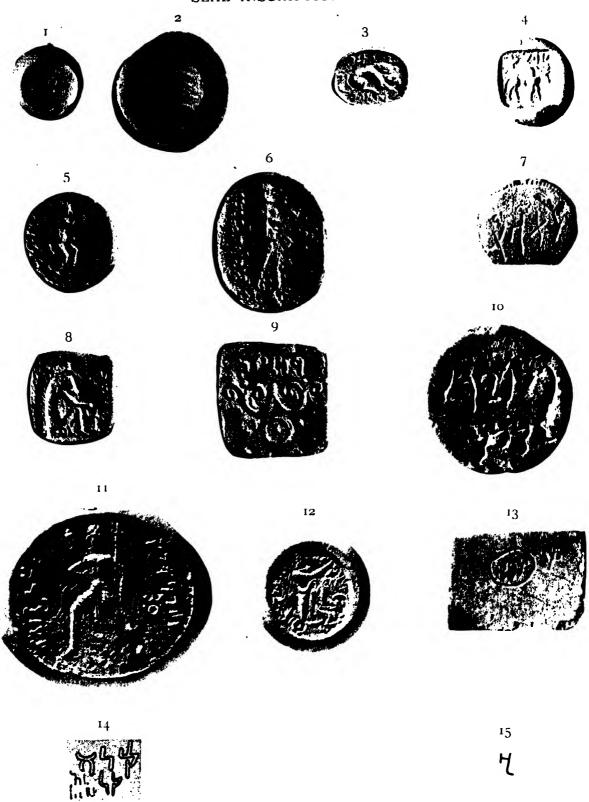
Text Yavala(le?)trasa.

Translation
Of Yavalatra (or, Yavaletra).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASIAR, 1912-13, p. 27 and plate XXI b 6.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Marshall, ASIAR, 1912-13, p. 27 and plate XXI b 8.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> ASIAR, 1923-4, p. 66, plate XXVII, 3.



moli カフィナトクシセクトクイトグフナ

#### 5. Circular copper seal

Sk. 1 of 1921 is a circular copper seal,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. in diameter, showing a standing figure and a Kharoshthī legend which I cannot read with certainty. In front of the figure it seems possible to read *Yolamoṇalatra* . . sa, and behind *Budhalatrasa*. With the utmost reserve I read:

#### TEXT

Yolamonalatra[putra]sa Budhalatrasa.

#### TRANSLATION

Of Buddhalatra, the son of Yola Monalatra.

#### 6. Oval copper seal

Sk. 1416 of 1925 is an oval copper seal,  $\frac{6}{8}$  in.  $\times \frac{5}{8}$  in., showing a standing figure and a Kharoshthi legend, which has suffered much from corrosion. Behind the figure it seems possible to read Matajha[na]putrasa and in front . . jhanasa, but the reading is extremely uncertain.

#### Text

Matajha[na]putrasa . . jhanasa.

#### TRANSLATION

Of . . dhyāna, the son of Matadhyāna.

#### 7. Another oval copper seal

Sk. 1301 of 1913-14 is another oval copper seal,  $\frac{12}{16}$  in.  $\times \frac{11}{16}$  in., with a legend, which seems to be *denipasa*, though the first akshara might be ja.

TEXT

TRANSLATION

Denipasa.

Of Denipa.

#### 8. Square copper seal with Brahman

Sk. 3889 of 1926-7 is a square copper seal,  $\frac{7}{16}$  in.  $\times \frac{7}{16}$  in., showing a Brahman sitting in a hut before an altar, with a Kharoshthī legend in front.

Text

TRANSLATION

Bramadatasa.

Of Brahmadatta.

#### 9. Square copper seal with Nandipada

Sk. 4263 of 1926-7 is a square copper seal,  $\frac{5}{8}$  in.  $\times \frac{5}{8}$  in., showing a Nandipada and above a Kharoshthī legend.

TEXT

TRANSLATION

Arajhamdasa.

Of Arajhanda.

#### 10. Terra-cotta seal

Sk. 132 of 1926-7 is a round terra-cotta seal, 1 in. in diameter, with a Kharoshthī legend in two lines.

TEXT

L. 1 atavihare Mu-

2 drasatasa.

TRANSLATION

Of Mudrasata, in his own Vihāra.

#### 11. Copper seal with figure of Siva

A round copper seal, measuring 1.35 x 1.35 in., with two rings on the back, was found at Sirkap in the year 1914-15. It shows the figure of Siva with trident in left hand and club in right. In the right field a Nandipada and a Kharoshthī legend in letters which strongly remind us of the Shahdaur inscription B of Sivarakshita. In the left field the same legend in Brāhmī.1

> Техт Śivarakshitasa.

TRANSLATION Of Śivarakshita.

#### 12. Bronze seal with Herakles

An oval bronze seal, measuring 0.7 × 0.6 in., and acquired in the same year, shows Herakles trampling down a bull-shaped dragon. The Kharoshthī legend was read by Sir John Marshall as Tidusa Vibhumitrasa (?). The first akshara is, however, so far as I can see, ba. Badu corresponds to Skr. batu, a Brahman boy. The second syllable of the second word seems to me to be an unmistakable spa. I therefore read:

> TEXT Badusa Vispamitrasa.

TRANSLATION Of the young Brahman Viśvāmitra.

#### 13. Inscribed stone matrix

An inscribed stone matrix was found in the year 1919-20.3 In the right corner there is a distinct Kharoshthī ga, and in the centre, within an irregular circle, four aksharas which I would read as Gayalasa, of Gayala. There are two dots, under ya and la respectively, which I cannot explain.

#### 14. Inscribed pillar

To the south-west of Sirkap, in a ravine close to the right bank of the Tamra Nala and near the village of Dhibia, Cunningham found the remains of a large monolith, called chura by the villagers, lying in five pieces. One of the pieces bore traces of a Kharoshthī inscription. To judge from Cunningham's plate there were remnants of two lines. The first was read by Cunningham as seracha, and, if his plate is reliable, it must be fairly ancient, the shape of sa and cha being of about the same kind as in the Patika plate. In the second line we seem to have sakha and some blurred letters. The sa is, however, different from the sa of the first line, and may be misread for ta, in which case we might think of restoring Takhasilae.

#### 15. Jandiāl pillar

Another pillar was dug out by Cunningham in a mound to the north of Jandial, where Sir John Marshall later on laid bare a stupa of two periods, 'built in the Scytho-Parthian epoch and rebuilt probably in the third century of our era'. This pillar was marked with a letter which Cunningham took to be a numerical figure. To judge from the reproduction, it may be a da.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Marshall, ASIAR, 1914-15, p. 35, plate XXIV, 51.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> ASIAR, 1914-15, p. 35, plate XXIV, 50.

<sup>8</sup> ASIAR, 1919-20, p. 20, plate VIII, 1.

<sup>4</sup> Cunningham, ASI, ii, p. 126 and plate LIX, fig. 5.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> A Guide to Taxila, p. 94.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Cunningham, l.c., p. 135, and plate LIX, fig. 6.

#### Lost silver roll

Cunningham mentions still another inscription from the same neighbourhood, which he had not himself seen. He says: 1 'Mr. Delmerick has since made a discovery in this immediate neighbourhood: "To the west of Seri-ki-Pind, about a gunshot from the village, at a spot called *Thupi*, about 8 feet below the surface", was found a stone box, holding a wooden box, which held a silver box, inside which was a gold box, containing some small pearls, bits of gold, &c. The stone box was found in a square compartment, near which in a mass of earth was found a small roll of very thin silver, scarcely one inch in breadth and very friable, containing an inscription in Arian letters'. This silver scroll has apparently disappeared and there is no probability of its being ever recovered. For the remaining antiquities mentioned by Mr. Delmerick were evidently not taken care of, and some of them, viz. 'a small silver casket lenticular in shape, containing a smaller one of the same pattern in gold, and in the latter a small fragment of bone', seem to have been actually recovered by Sir John Marshall in the spoil earth at the side of the stūpa.<sup>2</sup>

#### XXXVIII. PLATE XX. 16: SEAL INSCRIPTION OF SIVASENA

The name of a kshatrapa Śivasena occurs in the legend of a copper seal ring, which was found by Mr. Bayley in the Panjāb and described by Cunningham, but which has since disappeared.

Cunningham read the seal legend as Sivasena kshatrapa Atri naram Pathanavare, Sivasena, of the race of Atri, satrap of Pothowar, and saw in Pathanavara the old name of Pothowar, which is part of the Rāwalpiṇḍī district.

Professor Dowson gave a new reading, viz. Sivasena kshatrapa Atridara paṭana are . . ., Sivasena kshatrapa, city of Atridara.

To judge from the plates Sivaseņa kshatrapa are certain, as is also the ensuing a. The next akshara, however, looks like vri, and the following one is perhaps sa. Avrisara may, of course, be misread for avhisara. Now if we bear in mind that intervocalic bh becomes vh or v in several cases in the Kharoshthī Dhammapada, and that vr is used in the coin legends of Wima Kadphises for an aspirated or strongly labialized v, it is perhaps possible to see in avrisara or avhisara the well-known Abhisara, which has been identified by Sir Aurel Stein with the hills between the Jhelam and the Chenāb and some time comprised also Hazāra.

The remaining portion of the legend seems to be pathanaare, followed by some unidentified symbols, though neither the na nor the a appear to have been quite certain. It is perhaps possible to explain patha as corresponding to Skr. prastha and naare as representing nagare, though the dropping of an intervocalic g is unparalleled, and the absence of reliable reproductions makes it necessary to consider every explanation as little more than a guess.

#### TEXT

Śivaseņa kshatrapa Avri[sa]rapathaņaare.

#### TRANSLATION

Śivasena, the kshatrapa in the town of Abhisāraprastha.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> l. c., p. 135, footnote.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See A Guide to Taxila, p. 95.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> JASB, xxiii, 1854, p. 698, and plate xxxv, no. 23.

<sup>4</sup> JRAS, xx, 1863, p. 249, and plate IV, fig. 6.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Rājataranginī, i. 180; The Geographical Journal, 1927, p. 426.

#### XXXIX. PLATE XV. 3: DEWAI INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 200

Dewai is a small fort in the territory of the Nawāb of Amb, on the eastern slope of Mahāban, with some ancient remains, which were visited by Sir Aurel Stein in November 1904. One of the inscribed stones collected by Sir Harold Deane was stated to have been found at Dewai. It is now Nr. I. 44 of the Lahore Museum. It is very rough, but has, on one side, a smoothened surface, 9 in. by 5 in., with three lines of Kharoshthī letters, varying in size between  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. and 2 in.

A photograph of the stone was sent by Sir Harold to M. Senart, who published the inscription with a plate.<sup>2</sup>

The characters are irregular and inconsistent, and it is evident that the engraver has been in possession of little skill. The distinct prolongation of the lower part of sa in the initial sam, the second sa of masasa and the se of divase seems to show that the letters of his draft belonged to a period intermediate between the Taxila silver scroll and Kanishka.

The reading of the date is quite certain: sam I I 100 Vešakhasa masasa divase aṭhame 4 4, i. e. the 8th Vaiśākha 200, corresponding, according to Dr. van Wijk, to the 24th March, A.D. 116.

We may note the great diversity in the shape of the sa, and, on the whole, the careless execution of the aksharas. The first sa is fairly regular, with the projection of the leg which we know from old records, but the anusvāra curve runs into the head of va below. The sa of Vešakhasa and the first sa of masasa look like ra, while the second sa of masasa is provided with a sloping projection from the almost straight line formed by the lower bar of the head and the leg. A similar form is found in divase, where the top-stroke is continued in the e-mātrā. The ve of Vešakhasa looks almost like the sa of the same word. The tha of athame is continued in a flourish, which runs into the line below, and the me looks almost like a Brāhmī ma.

After the date M. Senart read isme khanasa, which he explained as corresponding to Skr. asmin kshane. The second akshara, however, does not seem to be sme, but tra. The only unusual feature is the backward curve of the bottom of t, below the r-stroke. A similar curve has sometimes, it is true, been transliterated as m in the compound tma, but there the curve is narrower and turned upwards at the termination. Moreover, the reading tma is, as indicated in connexion with the Taxila silver scroll, certainly wrong and should be replaced by tva. I therefore read itra, cf. etra in the Māṇikiāla inscription. The next word is certainly khaṇasa, and this is evidently the same locative which we find in asvi loki parasa yi, Skr. asmin loke parasmin cha, A³6, Cro 30; namaruvasa, Skr. nāmarūpe, B 38, in the Kharoshṭhī Dhammapada, where we find the same change of asi to asa. Khaṇa instead of the more usual kshuṇa should be compared with Takhaśila side by side with Takshaśila.

After khanasa comes an akshara which is almost invisible in M. Senart's plate, but which is evidently da. It must be drawn to 1. 3.

L. 3. The next word was read as nagachhatra, or, in my transliteration, nagakshatra, by M. Senart, who compared Bühler's reading samanachhatra in the Mathurā Lion

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. ASIFC, 1904-5, p. 32.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> JA, IX, iv, 1894, pp. 510 ff., and plate v, no. 34; cf. Banerji, *Ind. Ant.*, xxxvii, 1908, pp. 46, 68; Majumdar, List, no. 9.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> JRAS, 1894, p. 536.

Capital inscription E, which Bühler thought 'may perhaps be justified by the use of the term *chhattrī*, which in Rajputana and Gujarat is frequently used to denote the cenotaphs of princes and monks, over which an umbrella-like dome is erected'. *Chhattrī*, however, has an old *chh*, which is never written *ksha* in Kharoshṭhī inscriptions.

Nor do I think that M. Senart's reading can be accepted. The second akshara is, so far as I can see, a mu, of the same shape as in A 3 of the Mathurā Lion Capital, where it is likewise raised above the line. The left bar of an ordinary ma has been added, so that the akshara looks almost like mo. We may compare the mu of the Mount Banj inscription. The raised position makes, I think, the reading mu certain.

The next akshara seems to be ho. It might be kho, but the o-stroke stands too low down and the backward curve and continuation of the bottom is too pronounced to be accidental, and the kha of ll. 1 and 2 is too different. I therefore read the whole word as danamuho.

The next akshara was read tra by M. Senart, but it seems to me that we must read to, though we have not the same backward curve as in itra, 1. 2, and though there is a projection of the lower limb above the o-stroke. To read so seems unlikely in face of the other sa's.

What follows after to was taken to be a da by M. Senart, but I have already stated that I think it belongs to the tha of l. 2. A comparison of the difficult passage following after rajami in l. 2 of the Zeda inscription shows that such must be the case. There we have an akshara resembling what I have read as to, followed by a distinct ya, with a hook attached to the right limb. In the same way we have, after the to and M. Senart's da, a ya, with a long line at the bottom. The same word is evidently contained in both records, and we must infer that nothing intervenes between to and ya. The Zeda inscription also shows that the akshara after to cannot be sa, as read by M. Senart, but must be ya. The meaning of the horizontal crossing the right bar of this ya must evidently be the same as that of the hook attached to the corresponding ya of the Zeda inscription, which, in its turn, is so like the anusvāra of sam, the first akshara of the inscription, that it seems necessary to read the letter as yam.

The ensuing letter was left untransliterated by M. Senart. Its shape is irregular, but it bears resemblance to the da of divase above, and as the corresponding letter in the Zeda inscription is certainly da, I read it as da. We thus get at a word toyada or toyanda, which is only known from these two inscriptions. It seems to be formed in the same way as dhananjaya, and to mean 'water-giver'. In the Zeda inscription the toyanda is mentioned in connexion with a well, and it seems likely that it denotes some contrivance or place for drawing or serving water. But we cannot say what is exactly meant.

The next letter was also left untransliterated by M. Senart. It consist of a long vertical, with a sloping top-line and a semicircle attached to its middle. The semicircle reminds us of the back-limb of bha in the Wardak Vase inscription, and it is perhaps possible to read bha. The next two letters were read trasa by M. Senart, but it also seems possible to read drasa, and, with every reserve, I read the whole as bhadrasa.

After this word M. Senart read *ima*. It will be seen, however, that the bottom of the first letter is curved backwards and that the *i*-stroke has not the same slope as in *i* of l. 2. I therefore think that we must read *hi*. Moreover, there are traces of a damaged letter after *ma*, which I take to have been *sa*. I therefore read *himasa* and see in this the genitive of a name which may be compared with the name *Himmaka*, Rājataranginī VI. 213 ff.

The reading and interpretation of the record arc, as it will be seen, partly uncertain, in consequence of the careless execution.

#### **TEXT**

- I.. 1 sa[m] 1 1 100 Veśakhasa masasa di-
  - 2 vase athame 4 4 itra khanasa [da]-
  - 3 namu[ho] toyam[da] bha[dra]sa Hima[sa].

#### TRANSLATION

Anno 200, on the eighth, 8., day of the month Vaisākha, at this instant a water-giver is the gift of the worthy Hima.

## XL. PLATE XXI. 1: LORIYĀN TANGAI PEDESTAL INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 318

The ruined stūpa of Loriyān Tangai is situated in the valley (tangai) of Loriyān, or, according to M. Foucher, perhaps Rālyan, near the northern opening of the Shāhkot pass into Lower Swāt, to the south-east of the Aladand fortress and near the village Piyalāna. It was excavated in the spring of 1896 by Mr. A. E. Caddy, and the result was a collection of Gandhāra sculptures, most of which are now to be found in the Calcutta Museum.

According to M. Foucher,<sup>2</sup> the period of the stūpa is late, perhaps the second century A.D.

Among the sculptures is a statue, No. 4901 of the Calcutta Museum, which has been illustrated and described by Professor Vogel.<sup>3</sup> It is much injured, the head, the left foot, and the two hands being broken off. The pedestal shows, in the centre, a seated Bodhisattva, with two male devotees to the left and two female ones to the right.

Beneath this relief is a raised border, and below a plain surface containing a Kharoshṭhī inscription in two lines, which has been noticed or edited by Messrs. Hoernle, 4 Senart, 5 Vogel, 6 Banerji, 7 and Majumdar. 8

The length of the two lines is 16 in. and  $8_2^1$  in., respectively, and the size of individual letters varies between  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. and  $1_2^1$  in.

The characters are evidently late. We may note the short vertical terminating the horizontals in tha, va and ra, and the square ya with the left limb projecting above the top-line, which we know from the  $\bar{A}r\bar{a}$  inscription.

The date is quite clear, viz. sa 1 1 1 100 10 4 4 Prothavadasa di 20 4 1 1 1, corresponding, according to Dr. van Wijk's calculations, to the 27th August A.D. 234.

Then follows Budhaghoshasa danamukhe, where only the final akshara, the last of l. 1, is damaged.

L. 2 opens with Saghorumasa, which name Professor Vogel has rightly explained

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JA, 1X, xiii, 1899, p. 528.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> L'art gréco-bouddhique du Gandhâra, ii, p. 4901.

<sup>3</sup> ASIAR, 1903-4, p. 251, plate LXIX b.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> A. Caddy, Report to the Government of Bengal (Chakdara, the 13th May, and Mansahera, the 18th July, 1896), pp. 10 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> JA, 1X, xiii, 1899, pp. 526 ff., with plate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> ASIPU, 1903-4, pp. 50, 53; 1904-5, pp. 20 f.; ASIAR, 1903-4, pp. 251 ff., and plate LXX, no. 5.

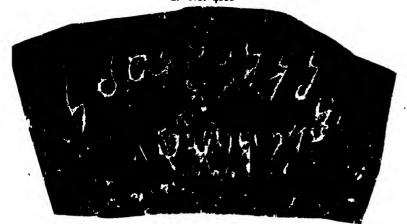
<sup>7</sup> Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, p. 40.

<sup>•</sup> J&PASB, xviii, 1922, pp. 63 f., and plate IV; List, no. 33.

# LORIYĀN TANGAL 1. No. 4901. YEAR 318



2. No. 4860

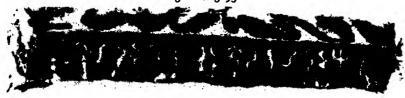


3. No. 4871



4. No. 4995





as corresponding to Skr. Samghavarma, taking Samghavarma to be a second donor in addition to Buddhaghosha.

The last word was read as sadarabhatisa, 'together with his wife and brother', by M. Senart, and as sadaresarisa by Professor Vogel and Mr. Majumdar, the latter adding the translation 'together with his wife Isvari'.

Now we shall see that the same word recurs in other Loriyan Tangai inscriptions, in connexion with other names, and we should have to infer that the name Iśvarī must have been very common, if Mr. Majumdar's translation were right.

Moreover, we have no examples of the mentioning of two donors in this way, and, further, it would not be good grammar to draw the concluding word to the last name only.

A priori we should expect the last word of the record to indicate some relationship between the two persons mentioned. We may compare, e.g., the Brāhmī inscriptions nos. 29, 40, 918, and 925 of Lüders' List: aryya-Oghasya sishya gaṇisya aryya-Pālasya sraddhacharo vāchakasya aryya-Dattasya sishyo vachako arrya-Sīhā, the preacher Ārya-Simha, the pupil of the preacher Ārya-Datta, (who was) the companion (sārdhamchara) of the gaṇin Ārya-Pāla, (who was) the pupil of Ārya-Ogha; dānam bhīkshusya Buddhadāsasya Sanghamītrasadevihārisa, gift of the monk Buddhadāsa, the companion of Samghamitra; bhikshusya Pushyavuddhisya saddhyevihārisya bhikshusya Balasya, of the friar Bala, the companion of the friar Pushyavriddhi.

These inscriptions give us the clue to the correct reading and interpretation of this and other Loriyan Tangai records.

The third akshara, after sada is, so far as I can see, whether ra nor re, but vi, and the fourth is, as already stated, clearly the same ya as is found in the Ārā inscription. We must, therefore, read sadaviyarisa, and it is evident that this means the same thing as  $s\bar{a}rdha\dot{m}chara$  and  $s\bar{a}rdha\dot{m}vih\bar{a}rin$  in the Brāhmī inscriptions quoted above, one of which had the same d for dh as our record. We may compare the  $s\bar{a}rdha\dot{m}vih\bar{a}rin$  of the Divyāvadāna and Pāli saddhivihari, which show how familiar this word was with ancient Buddhists. We have already seen that we must reckon with a rather advanced stage of development in the Loriyān Tangai dialect, where Samghavarma becomes Samghoruma, and the substitution of y for h in sadaviyari cannot make difficulties. It is, however, possible that the word represents Skr. \* $s\bar{a}rdhamvicharin$ . The meaning remains the same.

#### Техт

L. 1 Sa 1 1 100 10 4 4 Prothavadasa di 20 4 1 1 1 Budhaghoshasa danamu[khe]

2 Saghorumasa sadaviyarisa.

#### TRANSLATION

Anno 318, the 27. d. of Praushthapada, gift of Buddhaghosha, the companion of Samghavarma.

#### XLI. PLATE XXI. 2: LORIYAN TANGAI INSCRIPTION, No. 4860

No. 4860 of the Calcutta Museum, entered in the books on the 20th January, 1898, as brought from Loriyān Tangai by Mr. Caddy, is a statue, representing the Buddha sitting cross-legged, in the dhyānamudrā, on a lotus fruit.

Below the folds of the garment is a Kharoshthi inscription in two lines, 5 in. and 3½ in. long respectively, which has not formerly been noticed.

The aksharas, which are of the same kind as in other Loriyan Tangai inscriptions, vary in size from \(\frac{1}{4}\) in., and are badly drawn and executed with little

care and understanding. We may note the late shape of bu, which reminds us of the Jaulia records, the quite exceptional mu, and the ancient sa, with a distinct prolongation of the lower limb. There cannot be any doubt that the style is very debased.

The first letter is clearly bu, and the next dho. The top-stroke is very faint, but the alignment of the akshara shows that it cannot be ro. The third is ru, with a defective u-loop, and the fourth and fifth masa. We must, consequently, read Budho-rumasa, a form of the same kind as Saghoruma in the preceding inscription.

The next word is clearly daṇamukh[e], though the writing is rather irregular. The da and the na have been connected by bending the vertical of na backwards; the mu has an exceptional shape, and the e-stroke of khe is almost invisible.

The second line presents so many curious forms that the reading can only be conjectural.

The first akshara may be khain and the second da. The third reminds us of the second ba of the Loriyān Tangai inscription No. 4871. But there we have a horizontal top-bar continued in a small curve forwards instead of a vertical. Here we have a letter looking like an a, with a broad curve attached to the termination. If we compare the writing of dana in l. 1, we become inclined to think of a cursive vana. Khaindavana might be compared with the name Khandagiri and be considered as the name of the place where the stūpa is situated. Then follows an akshara which might be ru, or rather tu. The u-curve seems to be of the same kind as in ru, l. 1. The next akshara is apparently ba, of an older shape than in l. 1, and then follows what is almost certainly ga. The last letter, finally, might be mi. Tubagami might be a contamination of stubagami and thubagami and represent a Skr. stūpake. With the utmost reserve I therefore read as follows:

#### Техт

- L. 1 Bu[dh]orumasa daņamukh[e]
  - 2 Khamda[vaṇatu]baga[mi].

#### TRANSLATION

Gift of Buddhavarma, in the Khandavana stūpa.

#### XLII. PLATE XXI. 3: LORIYAN TANGAI INSCRIPTION, No. 4871

No. 4871 of the Calcutta Museum, entered in the books on the 20th January, 1898, is a statue from Loriyān Tangai, which has been illustrated and described by Professor Vogel<sup>2</sup> as probably belonging to a comparatively late date. It represents the Buddha, seated cross-legged on an ornamental stool.

The sculpture is provided with a Kharoshthī inscription in two lines,  $4\frac{1}{2}$  in. and 5 in. long, incised on the cloth hanging down from the Buddha's seat and following the folds of the drapery. The size of individual letters varies from  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. to 1 in. The middle portion of the second line is defaced.

The inscription was read by Professor Vogel's as Budhamitrasa Budharakshidasa sada[resari]sa danamukhe.

The first akshara stands alone between two folds, and is of the same kind as in No. 4860. The second bu has its top turned into a forward curve, probably on account of the rounding of the stone. The kshi is irregular and looks almost like a di.

<sup>1</sup> Cf. Prākrit teņa, Skr. stena, &c.; Pischel, Grammatik der Prākrit-Sprachen, § 307.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> ASIAR, 1903-4, p. 253, with plate LXVIII a.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> l. c., pp. 245, no. 9, 253, with plate LXX, no. 8; cf. Majumdar, List, no. 32.

L. 2. The first three aksharas are clearly sasada, though the third might be dra. The fourth consists of a sloping angle and can hardly be anything else than ya. The fifth is a damaged ri, and it is separated from the ensuing sa by an interval. We thus have sadayarisa, which may be a slip for sadaviyarisa or a synonym, Skr. \*sardhamcharin. The two last aksharas are damaged, but certainly mukhe.

#### TEXT

- L. 1 Budhamitrasa [Bu]dharakshida-
  - 2 sa sadayarisa dana[mukhe].

#### TRANSLATION

Gift of Buddhamitra, the companion of Buddharakshita.

#### XLIII. PLATE XXI. 4: LORIYAN TANGAI INSCRIPTION, No. 4995

No. 4995 of the Calcutta Museum, entered in the Museum register on the 21st January, 1898, is a headless statue from Loriyān Tangai, representing a Bodhisattva, sitting in European fashion on a stool. The right leg has been drawn up; the left foot and the sandal of the right one are placed on a footstool shaped like a lotus-fruit.

The footstool bears a Kharoshṭhī inscription, which is much damaged, because the bottom of the stone is broken. It has been edited by Professor Vogel, with plates illustrating the image and the inscription.<sup>1</sup>

The inscription consists of one line, with some aksharas added above the last letters, and is about 7 in. long, the size of individual letters varying from  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. to  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. The bottom of most aksharas is damaged, and the reading is, on the whole, beset with difficulties.

The characters are of the same late type as in other Loriyan Tangai records. We may note the shape of mu, the position of the e-stroke above the head of kha, and the pa-like ya.

Professor Vogel read the two first words as Amohakasa danamukhe and left the remaining portion untransliterated.

The first akshara is almost certainly a. The second may be mo, though the o-stroke is placed at the right extremity of the upper curve and seems to project a little above the curve. This projection is, however, perhaps not intended. On the other hand, our akshara is strikingly like the ksha of Budharakshidasa in no. 4871, and as the bottom is broken off, the vertical has evidently been longer. I therefore think it probable that we should read ksha or kshe. The third letter can be i or hi. The bottom is broken, so that we cannot see whether it was curved back or not. The i-stroke is certain. Then follows the top of an a. The apparent i-stroke is nothing else than the broken edge of the stone. The ensuing sa is certain. With every reserve I therefore read akshaïasa or aksheiasa, taking akshaïa, aksheia to be a name, Skr. akshayika or akshayya.

The next word is danamukhe, with a dental n.

The next letter is evidently the upper portion of a sa, and what follows looks like the dha of the Jaulia inscriptions. Then comes a letter which might be thu or rma. It seems possible to read the two next aksharas as rata, and the whole may be sadharmarata, Skr. saddharmarata, rejoicing in the true law.

Then comes an akshara which looks like  $\delta a$ , and further a continuation of the left upright in a broad curve, so that the whole looks like  $\delta ama$ , written together somewhat like dana in no. 4860. A long vertical is then drawn parallel to the left bar, perhaps as

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASIAR, 1903-4, p. 254, and plates LXVIII c and LXX, fig. 7; cf. Majumdar, List, no. 30.

a correction in order to separate  $\delta a$  and ma. The next akshara may be na. Then comes a vertical, with an indenture towards the top, followed by a sa, raised above the line, and a da. Above the last aksharas we can distinguish a ya, a ri at a somewhat higher level, and a sa. With great reserve I therefore read  $\delta amanasa$  sadayarisa and restore the whole as follows:

#### TEXT

A[kshaï]asa danamukhe Sa[dharmarataśamanasa sadayarisa].

#### TRANSLATION

Gift of Akshayika, the companion of the Śramana Saddharmarata.

# XLIV. PLATE XXI. 5: LORIYAN TANGAI INSCRIPTION, No. 5095

No. 5095 of the Calcutta Museum, entered in the register on the 25th January, 1898, is a fragmentary bas-relief from Loriyān Tangai, representing a preaching Buddha sitting cross-legged on a full-blown lotus.

Below is a Kharoshthī inscription,  $7^3_4$  in. long, with letters  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. to  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. high, which has been edited by Professor Vogel.

With regard to the characters we may again note the position of the e-stroke in (danamu)khe.

The first words are certainly, as read by Professor Vogel, Sihamitrasa daņamukhe, though the *i*-stroke of Si is very indistinct.

The third word he read as Sahilaasa, Skr. Sahilakasya, and this reading is perhaps the most likely one. In the photograph, however, there are faint traces of an *i*-stroke across the first akshara, and I am inclined to read si; cf. the name Sihila in the Taxila Vase inscription. The bottom stroke of hi is almost invisible, but certain. There is a very distinct line running obliquely into the front-limb of la, and it seems necessary to read li. Sihilia may be compared with Akshaïa of no. 4995.

Then follow sa, da, and, so far as I can see, vi, for which Dr. Vogel read re. I restore sadaviyarisa.

#### Техт

Sihamitrasa daṇamukhe S[i]hil[i]asa sadavi[yarisa\*].

# TRANSLATION

Gift of Simhamitra, the companion of Sihilika.

# XLV. Plate XXII. 1: JAMĀLGAŖHĪ INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 359

According to Cunningham, Jamālgarhī is a village to the south of the Pājā ridge, which separates Lūnkhor from Sūdam, just at the point where the Gadar Rūd breaks through the hills. It is nearly equidistant from Mardān, Takht-i-Bāhī, and Shāhbāz-garhī. From the first it bears nearly due north eight miles; from the second it bears east-north-east; and from the last it is nearly north-west. It is situated in 34° 20′ N. and 72° 5′ E.

During the excavations carried on by the Archaeological Department in the winter 1920–1 an inscribed stone was found in removing the debris in court 7. Estampages were sent to the Director General, at whose request Rai Bahadur Daya Ram Sahni

ASIAR, 1903-4, pp. 253 f., with plates LXVIII b and LXX, fig. 6; cf. Majumdar, List, no. 31.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> ASI, v, 1875, p. 46.

prepared a preliminary transcript, which was published by Mr. Hargreaves 1 with some remarks contributed by Professor Thomas.

Mr. Hargreaves describes the stone as a rough block of greenish mica schist, measuring 21 in.  $\times$  10 in.  $\times$  3 in. The inscribed portion is 20 in.  $\times$  3 in. and is smoothly dressed. The stone is broken at both ends and the back is irregular. Mr. Hargreaves thinks that it was one of the courses of a wall, as both ends and the back were not originally carefully dressed. From the general appearance he infers that the missing portion cannot have been great.

The stone is now in the Peshāwar Museum as Inscription no. 23.

The inscription consists of two lines, separated by a deep line over the whole surface, and the average height of the aksharas is 1 in. They are deeply cut and regular in shape, and can, on the whole, be read without any difficulty. There is, however, a damaged portion towards the end of l. 1, and in a few places the engraving has caused the stone to peel off outside the outlines of the letters.

The execution of the characters seems to be very careful, and they have a very ornamental look. On the other hand, there are almost no characteristic features, which enable us to draw chronological conclusions. We may note the  $\tilde{n}a$  of l. 2, with the curve at the top of the vertical, which has its nearest parallels in Aśoka's inscriptions. The general impression left by the inscription is that it has been drawn up by a calligrapher and not by a person who was in the habit of using the alphabet for practical purposes. Moreover, we are sometimes reminded of the Jauliä inscriptions, where we find something of the same ornamentalism and very similar forms of individual letters; cf. ka, ga, ta, da, dha, na, ra, and sa.

L. I opens with the date, and it is not likely that anything is missing. The first akshara is sam, where the anusvāra is marked by a slight forward bend of the vertical. Then follow the figures I I I 100 20 20 10 4 4 I, i. e. 359, where the second 20 is written so near the ensuing 10 that it has evidently been added subsequently. It also stands so near the preceding 20 that it cannot well have been written before the 10 had been incised. The engraver evidently first wrote 339, and then noticed that he had made a mistake and added the second 20. It is less likely that he has wanted to correct 339 to 349, because the 10 was evidently there in his draft.

Then follows a word which Mr. Daya Ram suggested to read as *ispaïlasa* or *ikaïlasa*, but which Professor Thomas was no doubt right in reading as *aspaïusa*, Skr. *asvayujaḥ*. It will be seen that the stone has peeled off in several places, so that it looks as if there were a horizontal across the head of the initial a, an u-loop below i, and only traces of the loop of u. Then follows paḍhaimainmi, with anticipation of the ensuing nasal in the second and third syllables; cf. danaimukhe in the Peshāwar Museum inscription of the year 168.

The date is, accordingly, the first Aśvayuj 359, corresponding, according to Dr. van Wijk's calculations, to the 24th August A. D. 275.

Then follows shavaena, i.e. Skr. śravakena, and Podaena, where the stone has peeled off, so that the head of e looks as if it were broken above, and, on the other hand, joined the curve of na, which is, in its turn, damaged, the result being an akshara looking like ksha. Moreover, the peeling off has brought about the appearance of a big loop at the bottom of na. There cannot, however, be any doubt about the reading Podaena, which word gives the name of the śrāvaka. We may compare names such as Pota, Potaya, which occur in later inscriptions.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASIFC, 1920-1, pp. 5 f., 21, no. 42; cf. Majumdar, List, no. 14.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. e.g. Ep. Ind., v, p. 68; viii, p. 10; xi, p. 316; xiii, pp. 2, 10.

After Podaena the peeling off is more extensive than elsewhere, and the lines visible are rather confused. Mr. Majumdar reads su, which he connects with the ensuing letters, haehi, to suhaehi, Skr. suhridaih, with his friends. The plate will show that the stone is damaged in this place, in addition to the peeling off consequent of the engraving. Even the deep line separating ll. 1 and 2 has disappeared, and also the aksharas in l. 2 below are damaged. It therefore seems to me that the big loop below the missing akshara is of the same kind as the apparent loop below the preceding na, and I read sahaehi, Skr. sahayaih or sahayebhyah, the same word as is used in the Fatehjang and Peshāwar Museum inscriptions, though saha ehi, together with these, is also possible.

Then follow pida and a damaged akshara which cannot be anything else than pu. We shall see below that only two aksharas seem to be missing in 1. 2. If we assume that not more has been lost in 1. 1 neither, we become inclined to restore pidaputrehi.

L. 2. The first akshara is damaged. The existing traces are more in favour of u than of o. Then comes diliakehi, with peelings off producing the appearance of a continuous line from the right end of the i-stroke of hi and to the upright of a. Udiliaka is evidently the designation of the companions, sahāyas, mentioned in l. 1, who apparently comprise a family, and it is just as inexplicable as other designations of such associations (sahayas, sahacharas) in other inscriptions.<sup>1</sup>

The next four letters were read as *iveruña* by Mr. Daya Ram, while Mr. Majumdar scems to read *ive radna*, which he translates 'a jewel, i. e. an image of the Buddha'. I follow him in thinking that the marks in front of ra, which Mr. Daya Ram took to be an u-loop, are simply due to the peeling off of the stone. The last akshara, on the other hand, is certainly ne. If we compare rajarañami of the Ilidda and tanuvakammi ramñammi of the Kurram inscription, it seems probable that rañe is Prākrit ranne, Skr. aranye, in the forest, grove.

The preceding *ive* is more difficult. We might think of explaining i as corresponding to Skr.  $cha^2$  and ve to vai. If we compare the shortening of the left limb of sa in sv of the first line of the Pājā inscription, which hails from the same neighbourhood, we shall, however, become inclined to think that ive is misdrawn for ise.

Then follows prethavide, which evidently corresponds to Skr. pratishthāpitah. We have already found pre for prati in the Taxila gold plate.

The next word was read dhamaükhe by Mr. Daya Ram, who tentatively explained it as corresponding to Skr. dharmavrikshah. I think, however, that Professor Thomas was right in reading dhamaüte, Skr. dharmayukta. There is a short stroke to the right of ma, but it is evidently due to the peeling off of the stone. In ute for yuktah we may note the regular t for tt, old kt, while an uncompound intervocalic t becomes d in Podaena, pida-, prethavide.

Of the next word, which cannot have contained more than two aksharas, only the first one is partly preserved. It seems to be o. If we compare what follows with the fifth akshara of the line, we shall find so much similarity that I feel justified in restoring ke, explaining oke as corresponding to Skr. okah, Pāli okam, a homestead, an asylum.

The remaining aksharas are perfectly clear, parigrahe sarvasa, and as the traces of a letter visible after sa seem to be the angular back-limb of a pa, we can restore the last word as sarvasapana.

It is accordingly possible to restore the whole record with great probability as follows:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> We may perhaps compare forms of the name Udyāna such as those mentioned by Professor Thomas, JRAS, 1906, p. 461.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. ya in the Mathurā Lion Capital and Wardak Vase inscriptions, yi in the Kharoshthī Dhammapada A<sup>3</sup> 6, B 34; i, ibidem, B 17, 36.

2. JAMĀLGAŖHĪ PEDESTAL



3. JAMĀLGAŖHĪ HALO. CUNNINGHAM

5515247

JAMĀLGAŖHĪ PILASTER



5. LAHORE HALO



Scale 0.50

8. JAMALGARHĪ SLAB



Full size

7. JAMÂLGAŖHĪ LAMP



Scale 0-40

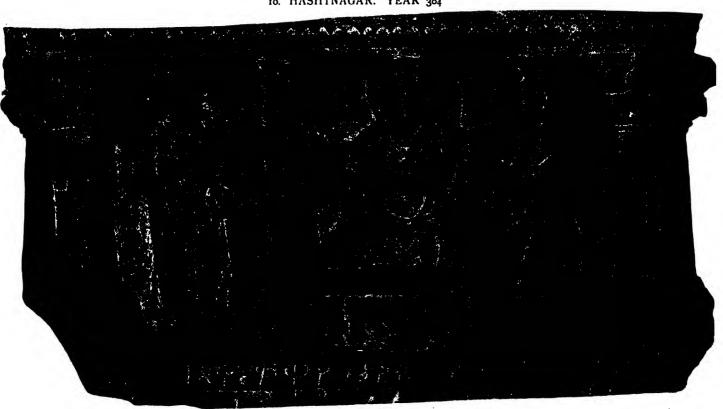
Scale 0-25

9. PĀLĀŢŪ PHERĪ PEDESTAL



Scale o-80

10. HASHTNAGAR. YEAR 384



Scale o-60

# TEXT

L. 1 sam I I 100 20 20 10 4 4 I Aspai[u]sa padhammammi shavaena Poda[ena sa]haehi pida[pu][trehi\*]

2 [U]diliakehi i[ś]e rañe prethavide dhamaüte [oke] parigrahe sarvasa[pana\*].

### TRANSLATION

Anno 359, on the first of Aśvayuj, an asylum connected with religion was established in this grove by the śrāvaka Potaka, with (or, for) the Uddiliaka companions, father and sons, in the acceptance of all beings.

# XLVI. PLATE XXII. 2: JAMĀLGAŖHÍ PEDESTAL INSCRIPTION

In the year 1907-8 Dr. Spooner obtained a fragment of a small sculpture from a peasant at Jamālgaṛhī, who stated that it had been found in a neighbouring field.¹ On his visit to the site in January 1912 Sir Aurel Stein purchased another fragment from a cultivator, probably the very person who brought the first one.²

The two pieces fit together and form the pedestal of a standing statue, of which only the feet are left. It is now in the Peshāwar Museum, No. 501.

Below the statue is a defaced figure, seated cross-legged on a throne, between Corinthian pilasters, and with two attendants on each side, and further down is a Kharoshthī inscription 3 in two lines, the lower, longer, one 11 in., the upper  $1\frac{3}{4}$  in. long. The characters are from  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. to 1 in. high.

The characters are on the whole well drawn, but the ga of l. 2 is misshapen and looks like ti, with a small vertical in the top angle, which has its parallel in the ga of the upper line of the Shahr-i-Nāpursān pedestal inscription. They are evidently late. Kha reminds us of the Ārā and Jauliā inscriptions, tha of the Ārā and Dewai records, ya of the Wardak Vase, and sa of the Jamālgarhī inscription of the year 359, and, in the word vasetha, of the Peshāwar Museum inscription of the year 168.

L. 1. The first letter is hopelessly defaced. The existing traces may be interpreted as pointing to a or am. The second seems to be ba, and the third is e. We may perhaps restore ambae and see in this the genitive of amba. There are some indistinct traces of letters in the space above, and it is possible that it contained the name of a person in the genitive, in which case we should have to translate 'by the mother of . . .'. Or else Amba may be the name of a woman.

Then follows a sa, with a small vertical above the head, which might be an e-stroke. If we compare the unmistakable se which follows, however, and the sixth akshara from the end, where we have a similar vertical, we become inclined to consider the apparent vertical as accidental and to read sa. The next aksharas are clearly vasethabhariae, and we must, accordingly, read savasethabhariae, which can hardly mean anything else than together with Vasetha's (Vāsishṭha's) wife'. It is accordingly tempting to restore Vasethasa ambae savasethabhariae, of the mother of Vāsishṭha together with Vāsishṭha's wife.

The next words are danamukhe sa[rvasa]tvana puyae, where the na of dana has an

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. ASIFC, 1907-8, p. 3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Ibidem, 1911-12, p. v; ASIAR, 1911-12, Pt. I, pp. 23 f.

<sup>3</sup> Majumdar, List, no. 20.

<sup>&#</sup>x27; It is hardly possible to read savase!habhatiae, together with her brother (bhrātṛika) Vāsishtha, if we compare the difference in shape between tva, l. 1, and ro, l. 2.

unusual bend of the vertical, rva is damaged, and the ensuing sa has disappeared in the break between the two pieces of which the pedestal consists.

Then follows a sa with a curve to the right, which might be explained as a subscript pa, assuming sva to have become spa in the same way as sva becomes spa. It seems, however, more probable that the curved hook is the sign of length which we find, in this form, in the Sanskrit verses contained in one of the Kharoshthī documents found by Sir Aurel Stein in Eastern Turkestan, and I therefore read  $s\bar{a}$ , and take this together with the ensuing aksharas, miasa, to represent Skr.  $sv\bar{a}mikasya$ , of the master, wherewith it is difficult to say whether the 'master' is the husband or the ruler or principal.

The next akshara seems to be *cha*, but the head is damaged. Then follows an incomplete a, which is to be connected with the letters written above in the upper line, which are evidently meant to be rogadakshini, though the ga is misdrawn and looks like ti, with a small vertical in the angle of the head, as mentioned above. It is possible that the draft has had gha, as in the Taxila meridarkh plate, which helps us to restore the whole as arogadakshiniae.

#### TEXT

L. 1 [am]bae saVasethabhariae danamukhe sa[rva][sa\*]tvana puyae sāmiasa [cha a-]

2 ro[ga]dakshini[ae\*].

#### TRANSLATION

Gift of the mother (or, Ambā), together with the wife of Vāsishtha, in honour of all beings and for the benefit of health for the Master.

# XLVII. PLATE XXII. 3: JAMĀLGAŖHĪ IMAGE HALO INSCRIPTION

On the halo of a statue from Jamālgarhī, which seems at the present day to have disappeared, Cunningham found a short Kharoshṭhī inscription, which he read as saphae danamukha.<sup>2</sup> M. Senart <sup>3</sup> suggested to read the first word as saphala, and Professor Vogel <sup>4</sup> read saphale, while Mr. Majumdar <sup>5</sup> seems to read saphae, but translates <sup>6</sup> fruitful.

If any reliance can be placed in Cunningham's plate, we can only read saphae, or, perhaps, suphae. And the analogy of all records containing the word danamukha shows that it must be the genitive of a name, denoting the donor. Sapha or Supha might correspond to Greek  $\Sigma 6\phi \eta$ .

Text Saphae danamukha. Translation Gift of Saphā.

# XLVIII. PLATE XXII. 4: JAMĀLGAŖHĪ PILASTER BASE INSCRIPTION

Cunningham also found at Jamālgarhī part of a pilaster base, bearing a Kharoshṭhī inscription. A new reading was given by Professor Vogel.

The fragment was deposited in the Calcutta Museum, but has been lost sight of. I now edit the inscription from a photograph.<sup>8</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Stein, Serindia, plate XXIV.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> ASI, v, 1875, pp. 49, 63 f., and plate XVI, 8.

<sup>8</sup> JA, VIII, xv, 1890, p. 132.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> ASIPU, 1903-4, p. 53; ASIAR, 1903-4, pp. 248 f. <sup>5</sup> List, no. 16.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> l. c., p. 63, and plate XVI, 7. <sup>7</sup> ll. cs. pp. 52 and 54, and p. 248; Majumdar, no. 15.

<sup>8</sup> Bloch, List of Negatives, Indian Museum, no. 997.

It consists of two lines, the first of which is incomplete. The characters seem to be of the same kind as in the Hashtnagar inscription.

The first word was restored by Professor Vogel as Budhavarumasa, Skr. Buddhavarmanah. Cunningham read Budhavara masa. A Buddhavarma is mentioned in a Mathurā Brāhmī inscription of the year 51.1

After Budhavarumasa we have a distinct che, which may perhaps be restored into chetiye, Skr. chaitye. After this we should expect some such word as danamukhe.

L. 2 was read by Professor Vogel as [eka] thuna, Skr. ekā sthūņā, one pillar. We may compare the gift of Chaitya pillars (chetiyakhabha) registered in two Amarāvatī inscriptions.<sup>2</sup>

#### TEVT

- L. 1 Budhavarumasa che[tiye danamukhe\*]
  - 2 [eka] thuṇa.

#### TRANSLATION

(Gift) of Buddhavarma (in the) chai(tya), one pillar.

# XLIX. PLATE XXII. 5: LAHORE MUSEUM HALO INSCRIPTION

The Budhavaruma inscription bears great similarity to a fragmentary record found on a broken Buddha image of unknown provenance, which is now No. 257 of the Lahore Museum.<sup>3</sup>

The inscription is found on the broken halo behind the head. It is only a fragment,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  in. long, and the characters are  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. to  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in. high.

It has been published by Professor Vogel, whose reading and restoration are Bosavarumasa da[namukhe\*]. The name Bosavaruma, with its dental s, does not look Indian. Professor Lüders has suggested to me that bosa may be the Chinese p'u-sa, a Bodhisattva, and it is tempting to accept this explanation. At the time when our inscription was drawn up Chinese p'u-sa was certainly pronounced with a b and an o. The pronunciation in the T'ang period was, according to Karlgren No. 1167, b'uo-sât.

Техт

Translation

Bosavarumasa da[namukhe\*].

Gift of Bosavarman.

# L. PLATE XXII. 6: LAHORE PEDESTAL INSCRIPTION

There is also another fragmentary inscription, of unknown origin, which seems to agree with the Jamālgarhī records in palaeography. It is found on a pedestal, No. 679 of the Lahore Museum, showing the feet of a Bodhisattva, with a relief below.

On the border below the relief are two Kharoshṭhī letters,  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. high, after which the surface of the stone is destroyed over a distance of  $2\frac{1}{2}$  in., so that not more than ten aksharas can have been lost.

The record has been edited by Professor Vogel, who read the aksharas as sanihe

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Lüders, List, no. 52.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Lüders, List, no. 1210, 1229.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Vogel, ASIAR, 1903-4, pl. LXVI. 3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> ASIPU, 1903-4, pp. 50, 53, and 1.c., pp. 244, no. 3, p. 249, and plate LXX. 2; cf. Majumdar, List, no. 27.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Burgess, Journal of Indian Art and Indust., viii, no. 62, pl. XIII, 4; Vogel, ASIAR, 1903-4, pl. LXVI, 4.

<sup>6</sup> ASIPU, 1903-4, p. 50; l.c., p. 249 and pl. LXX. 3; cf. Majumdar, List, no. 29.

and took this as the beginning of the donor's name in the genitive, after which the word danamukhe has probably followed. The first akshara is like the initial sam of the Jamālgarhī inscription of the year 359, but the reading su seems to be preferable.

TEXT
Suhe . . .

Translation (Gift of) Suhe . . .

# LI. PLATE XXII. 7: JAMĀLGAŖHĪ LAMP INSCRIPTION

A fragment of a stone lamp was unearthed during the excavations at Jamālgarhī in February, 1921, and is now in the Peshāwar Museum, as No.01874. It is  $3\frac{7}{10}$  in. long and  $2\frac{4}{10}$  in. high, and is inscribed with six complete and one fragmentary Kharoshthī letters, varying in size from  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. The inscription was read by Mr. Hargreaves  $\frac{1}{2}$  as  $\frac{5amijidabuva[ma]}{ma}$ .

The letters are deeply cut, but partly badly drawn. The third can, as it stands, hardly be ji, or je, unless we assume that it has been turned the wrong way. It may be a damaged e. The fifth is too short to be bu, and I should prefer to read tu. If we read famiedatuvam, it is perhaps likely that fami is the last part of the locative of a word ending in fa, and that edatuvam, should be restored as edatuvami, where family turned to the same kind as in No. XLI, so that the meaning might be 'in the stupa of Aida', or 'in the ram stupa'. It would also be possible to consider the short stroke at the bottom of <math>fa as remnants of an fa-matra and to compare fa-with fa-with we have thought to find in the Kala Sang inscription. But we cannot well read fa-with face of the distinct fa-loop of the ensuing akshara. As a mere guess I therefore arrive at the following reading and interpretation:

TEXT
... śami cḍatuvam[i\*].

TRANSLATION
in ... śa, in the Aiḍa-stūpa.

# LII. PLATE XXII. 8: JAMĀLGAŖHĪ PAVEMENT STONE INSCRIPTION

During a visit to Jamālgarhī in the beginning of 1912 Sir Aurel Stein 'discovered a Kharoshṭhī inscription of eleven characters, each about  $2\frac{1}{2}$  inches long, incised into one of the slabs of slaty stone which form the pavement round the main stūpa excavated under General Cunningham's order in 1873.... The inscription . . . shows plainly characters of the Kushāṇa period. Its chronological interest is evident; for placed as it was and scratched into a stone of no great hardness it could not have retained its legibility if it had lain exposed for a long series of years.... It seems therefore probable that the period when the Stūpa court was finally abandoned is not separated by a very great interval from the time when these characters were scratched in, perhaps by some pious visitor'.2

The stone is now in the Peshāwar Museum, as No. 01873. According to Mr. Majumdar it 'contains a number of holes, which were intended, as Mr. Hargreaves rightly suggests, to hold offerings of coins, a custom that continues even to the present day. A

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASIFC, 1920-1, pp. 6, 27, no. 228; cf. Majumdar, List, no. 18.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. ASIFC, 1911-12, p. v; ASIAR, 1911-12, P. 1, pp. 12, 23 f.; Majumdar, List, no. 19.

JAMĀLGAŖHĪ PAVEMENT STONE AND HASHTNAGAR PEDESTAL 117 pavement slab, with a copper coin of Vāsudeva in one of its holes, has actually been found at Jamālgaṛhī'.

The heads of the first aksharas are missing, and the reading is, consequently, uncertain.

Of the first only an u-mātrā remains. I feel, however, confident that it was bu. Of the second we see the lower part of a vertical, with an evident bend at about the level of the top of the u-mātrā of [b]u, wherefore we must almost certainly read dha. Then comes a somewhat longer vertical, which I take to represent ra, and afterwards traces, which Sir Aurel took to represent two letters, but which I feel convinced belong together and must be read as kshi. It looks as if the engraver has misunderstood his draft and separated the right limb from the rest.

The ensuing akshara is certainly da, and then comes what looks like the head of a sa, followed by an e. The state of things met with in the case of kshi, leads me to think that the engraver has again misunderstood his draft and separated the sa into two aksharas, taking the head as a separate letter. In that case we should have to assume that the sa was provided with the projection of the leg which we find in old inscriptions and in later ones where we have some reason for suspecting that the writers were more influenced by traditional patterns than by daily practice.

I therefore read the beginning as [B]u[dharakshi]da[sa].

Then comes a distinct ta, followed by an akshara which seems to be a badly drawn na and a very long ma. The unusual length of the right termination of the last akshara leads me to think that the engraver had before him mu and not ma, and to restore the whole as tanam[u]khe, where the writing ta for da can be explained by the confusion between ta and da occasioned by the voicing of intervocalic t.

I find some confirmation of my reading in a Jamālgaṛhī inscription mentioned by Mr. Majumdar, which has evidently been lost sight of. Mr. Majumdar could not trace it in the Museum, but he saw impressions which seem to have given the reading Budharakshitasa bhikshusa daṇamukha.

I therefore read as follows:

Техт [B]u[dharakshi]da[sa] ta(da)nam[ukhe\*].

Translation

Gift of Buddharakshita.

# LIII. PLATE XXII. 10: HASHTNAGAR PEDESTAL INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 384

Hashtnagar, i.e. the eight towns, is a modern name given to eight small villages on the left bank of the Swāt river, above its confluence with the Kābul river, on the site of the ancient town Pushkalāvatī, the Peukelaotis of Greek writers. The modern names of the villages, from south to north, are Prāng, Chārsadda, Rājar, Utmanzai, Tarangzai, Umarzai, Sherpao, and Tangai.

The history of the site has been summed up by Messrs. Marshall and Vogel in the Annual Report of the Archaeological Survey of India, 1902-3, pp. 141 ff. It was conquered by Alexander, who established a Macedonian garrison there. Hüantsang states that two of its stūpas were built by Aśoka, and Fa-hien narrates that Aśoka's son Dharmavivardhana ruled in the place where the Buddha had made a gift of his

eyes, i.e. at Pushkalāvatī. At a later date, and probably under Kanishka, the capital was transferred to Peshāwar, and Pushkalāvatī lost its political position. Buddhist religion and art, however, continued to flourish, perhaps down to the sixth century, when Mihirakula, the ruler of the White Huns, destroyed the stūpas of Gandhāra. When Hüan-tsang visited the place between A.D. 629 and 645 the monuments were ruined.

The history of Hashtnagar consequently extends far down into the period of Kanishka and his successors. The era instituted by him does not, however, seem to have been regularly used there, any more than in Loriyān Tangai and Jamālgarhī.

At the village of Rājar a road runs eastwards to Khānmai, and on the north side of this road, about half a mile from Rājar, lies a mound known as the Pālāṭū Dherī, which was excavated by Marshall and Vogel in April 1903. They found remnants of a Buddhist monument, which had evidently met with a violent end. 'About what time this happened may be surmised from the coins found in the courtyard which belong to the late Kushāṇa period. The date of its erection is more difficult to determine, but some hint may be obtained from the fact that the sculptures found here are of superior style, and presumably earlier than those from the adjacent stūpa, while such evidence as there is goes to show that the latter is to be referred to the reign of Zeionises'.

A banyā of Rājar named Ratan had formerly used the mound as a quarry, in order to obtain stones for a dharmśālā, and found a statue of the Buddha, which the Hindūs of Rājar readily recognized as an image of Kālikā Devī, and as such it is still worshipped in the dharmśālā.

It is without arms, and the old head is missing and has been replaced by another. Professors Vogel 1 and Foucher, 2 however, agree in praising the good style of the garment, and the latter states that it must be older than the Buddhas of Kanishka, and draws 8 attention to the fact mentioned 4 by Marshall and Vogel that a Kadphises coin has been found in situ under the base by Ratan, who himself brought it to Marshall and Vogel. The coin, however, can at the utmost prove that the statue is not older than Kadphises.

About 1883 the statue was seen by Mr. L. White King, I.C.S., who was permitted by the villagers to saw off the pedestal, which he found contained a Kharoshṭhī inscription, and this pedestal, which is commonly spoken of as the Hashtnagar pedestal, has been frequently described and illustrated.<sup>5</sup>

The date of the pedestal has been discussed, without reference to the statue, by several scholars. Mr. V. A. Smith 6 thought that its style assigns it to a late date, say the third or fourth century A.D.; Colonel Waddell 7 speaks of its style as fairly good, and M. Foucher 8 thinks that the Corinthian pilasters with panels and the introduction of the donor prevent us from dating it before our era, while the still reasonable disproportion between the Bodhisattva and the two attendants, the individual character of the long-haired Brahmā and the turbaned Indra, the naturalness of the gestures and the pliable drapery are as many features anterior to the style of Kanishka.

It will be seen that the best authorities are inclined to assign a high age not only

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASIAR, 1903-4, p. 258, with plate LXIX a.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> L'art gréco-bouddhique, ii, pp. 490 f., with plate 478.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> l. c., p. 548. 
<sup>4</sup> ASIAR, 1902-3, p. 161.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Cf. V. A. Smith, JASB, LVIII, Pt. i, 1889, pp. 144 ff., with pl. x; *Ind. Ant.*, xviii, 1889, p. 257, with facsimile; J. Burgess, *Fournal of Indian Art*, viii, no. 62, 1898, p. 28, with pl. v, fig. 3, cf. no. 69, 1900, p. 89; Foucher, l. c., pp. 88, 493, fig. 479.

<sup>6</sup> JRAS, 1903, pp. 14, 42.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> JRAS, 1913, p. 949.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> l. c., p. 552.

to the statue, but also to the pedestal. But then it should be remembered that the sculptures excavated at this site are, as mentioned above, said to be, on the whole, of particularly good style. If the high date assigned to the best Gandhāra art is right, we must, therefore, reckon with the possibility that the artistic tradition in this particular place remained strongly hellenistic and pure down to a comparatively late period. The isolated position of the place may have, in this respect, exercised an influence as in the case of the retention of the old Saka era even after the accession of the Kanishka dynasty.

The inscription is engraved on a band underneath the relief and does not contain anything beside the date. A portion of  $2\frac{4}{5}$  inches is, however, broken away on the left side of the pedestal, and, if the writing was continued to the left to the same length as to the right, there may have been about four aksharas after the date.

The date was first read for Mr. King by Sir A. Cunningham 1 as sam 274 emborasmasa masasa mi pañchami 5, where emborasma was explained as representing Greek ἐμβολισμός, intercalated. M. Senart 2 saw that the last figures of the date were 84 and the month Prothavada, and Bühler 3 had simultaneously and independently arrived at similar results, reading the name of the month as Postavadasa. Vincent Smith 4 compared the readings of these two scholars, and 5 adopted Cunningham's view that the era was the Śaka era, and Bühler remarked 6 that the palaeography of the record does not furnish us with sufficient facts for dating it at a great distance from the inscriptions of Kanishka and Huvishka. Finally M. Senart 7 read the year as 384, and his reading was, with a slight modification (pamchami for pamchame), adopted by Professor Vogel 8 and Mr. Pargiter.9

There cannot be any doubt about the reading, the execution of individual letters being throughout excellent. The only thing to be remarked is that the anusvāra hook is everywhere to be found in the field below the raised band where the inscription is incised. On the other hand, it is hardly possible to base conclusions on the palaeography. The cha has the later, cursive, shape, and may be compared with the forms found in the Ārā and Wardak records, and sa is of a similar kind. We may note the form painchami for painchame, which is evidently influenced by the preceding divasaimmi.

After the date there are traces of an akshara, but it is impossible to say which. We should expect the name of the donor in the genitive, followed by dana or danamukhe.

The only difficulty connected with the record is the question about the era, which has been discussed in the Introduction, where the various views propounded by other scholars have been mentioned and reasons have been given for referring the date to the old Saka era. According to Dr. van Wijk's calculations it then corresponds to the 7th June, A. D. 300.

# Техт

Sam I I I 100 20 20 20 4 Prothavadasa masasa divasammi pamchami 4 I.

#### TRANSLATION

Anno 384, on the fifth, 5., day of the month Praushthapada.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See V. A. Smith, JASB, I.VIII, i, 1889, pp. 144 ff.; Ind. Ant., xviii, 1889, pp. 257 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JA, VIII, xv, 1889, pp. 124 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Anzeiger der Kais. Akademie der Wissenschaften zu Wien, xxxiii, pp. 64 ff.; Ind. Ant., xx, 1891, p. 394.

<sup>4</sup> JASB, LXI, i, 1892, pp. 54 f.; Ind. Ant., xxi, 1892, pp. 166 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> JASB, LXII, i, 1893, p. 85.

<sup>6</sup> Ind. Ant., xxv, 1896, pp. 311 ff.; cf. Academy, 1896, no. 1252, p. 368.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> JA, IX, xiii, 1899, pp. 530 f.

<sup>8</sup> ASIPU, 1903-4, p. 53; ASIAR, 1903-4, pp. 250 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Ep. Ind., xii, p. 302, with plate. Cf. also Rapson, JRAS, 1900, p. 389; Bergny, ibidem, p. 414; Smith, ibidem, 1903, p. 42<sup>2</sup>; Banerji, Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, p. 40; Majumdar, List, no. 12.

# LIV. PLATE XXII. 9: PALĀŢŪ DHERĪ PEDESTAL INSCRIPTION

During their excavations at Pālāṭū Dherī in April 1903, Marshall and Vogel found a pedestal of a standing Buddha, which is now No. 626 of the Peshāwar Museum. Of the statue only the feet remain. On the front is a disfigured relief and below a Kharoshṭhī inscription, 2 inches long, with seven letters, each, on an average, ½ in. high. The first akshara is damaged, only the lower part of a vertical remaining.

The inscription was read by the discoverers  $^1$  as [Ga] dasa danamukhe, with reference to an intaglio said to contain the name Gada, which, as I have stated in the Introduction, plays a role in the legend of St. Thomas and Gondophernes.

I agree with Mr. Majumdar in not being able to read the first letter as ga. What is left is only part of a vertical and, perhaps, traces of an i-, or, perhaps, o-mātrā, so that we might think of ti, bi, ri or vi. If the traces of an i-stroke are accidental, ga is a possible reading, but ksha, mi, vha and several other possibilities are just as likely.

The second akshara is more like ta than da. We might think of the name Tita found by M. Boyer <sup>2</sup> in a Kharoshṭhī legend from Miran in Chinese Turkestan.

It is, however, impossible to do more than to transliterate what can be made out with some degree of certainty.

Техт
... tasa danamukhe.

Translation Gift of . . ta.

# LV. PLATE XXIII. 1-3: PĀLĀŢŪ DHERĪ JARS INSCRIPTIONS

The exeavation of the Palațū Dherī mound also brought to light some more inscriptions, written in a thin wash on the walls of some jars, which were found in a row from north to south in the south-eastern portion of the mound, each covered with a flat stone.<sup>3</sup>

The characters were almost effaced when the jars were found, so that their form could only be traced after moisture had been applied. They are now practically invisible, and we have to rely on eye-copies made at the time of discovery, from which the accompanying plate has been prepared.

There are three inscribed jars, distinguished as  $\Lambda$ , B, C, respectively. The inscriptions run in one line horizontally round the body of the vessels, the distance from the spring of the neck being 3 in. to  $3\frac{1}{2}$  in. in  $\Lambda$ , 3 in. to  $4\frac{1}{2}$  in. in B, and 1 in. in C.

The discoverers have made an attempt at reading the inscriptions in the second of the publications quoted in the footnote, where some remarks contributed by Messrs. Senart, Boyer, and Lüders have been added. The last mentioned scholar made a further contribution to the reading and interpretation of the records in the same Annual Report for 1903–4. Jar B has now the number 414, and C 413 in the Peshāwar Museum, while A does not bear any number.

#### Α

Inscription A consists of two fragments, each 9 inches long and consisting of ten aksharas, of an average size of  $\iota_2^1$  in. I refrain from making any remarks on palaeographical features. The general impression is that all these records are late.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASIPU, 1903 4, p. 54; ASIAR, 1902-3, p. 167, with fig. 16; cf. Majumdar, List, no. 7.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JA, x, xvii, pp. 413 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Vogel, ASIPU, 1903-4, pp. 6 ff.; Marshall and Vogel, ASIAR, 1902-3, pp. 163 f., with reproductions from eye-copies.

<sup>4</sup> pp. 289 ff.; cf. Majumdar, List, nos. 4-6.

M. Senart read what he considered to be the first half as sanigh[e] chatudise shama.. da. The e of sanighe is absolutely invisible, and the second word is almost certainly, as stated by Professor Lüders, chadudisi, though the continuation of the vowel-stroke below the horizontal may be due to a slip of the brush. The di of chadudisi has become so effaced that it looks like e in the eye-copy before me.

I also follow Lüders in reading the next word as *shamanana*, Skr. śramananam. It should be noted that only the dental n is used in this record.

The other half was read by M. Boyer as ... ga amata eta danamukha, this jar (Skr. amatra) is a gift. Professor Lüders reads .. rigaha Ksharaasa (or Moraasa), and restores .. rigaha as parigaha, supposing the name of the special sect which received the gift to have been given in the lost word preceding [pa]rigaha.

So far as I can see, Lüders' reading and explanation are evidently right. I have only some doubt about the reading of the word preceding danamukha, which seems more like gadaasa than ksharaasa. A name Gada is well known both from the Krishna legend, and, as already mentioned, from the Christian tradition about St. Thomas.

With regard to the particular sect mentioned in the lost word or words preceding [pa]rigaha we can apparently infer from inscription B that it was that of the Kāśyapīyas. We thus arrive at the following reading:

#### TEXT

#### TRANSLATION

To the Order of the four quarters, in the acceptance of the ... śramaņas, the gift of Gadaka (?).

В

The remaining portion of inscription B is 18 inches long, and the average size of the aksharas is 1 inch. Messrs. Lüders and Senart read it as sa[m]ghe chatudise shamana-[na], and the former remarked that the tu of chatudise is very faint and that the form appearing in the tracing does not bear resemblance to any known Kharoshthi letter, but that it is probably tu or du. The akshara has now disappeared almost entirely, but seems to be du. Also the last akshara of shamanana is slightly different from the preceding one, but must evidently be read as na.

Then follows an akshara, which may be ba or yu, and then apparently ha. The next letter looks like a ja or da. In the eye-copy before me it has the vertical curved towards the right, while it is turned the other way in the plate published in the Report of the Archaeological Survey, where it is, moreover, separated from the preceding one by a longer interval than in the copy before me. If the head was continued to the right of the vertical, we might think of reading shu. The ensuing letter might be mi, but the curve is quite different from ma in shamanana, and I think it possible that ti may have stood on the jar. Then follow traces of an a, followed by the remains of two verticals, which may have belonged to a ka, and a distinct na. As a possibility I may mention the reading bah[u]shutiakana, Skr. bahusrutiyakanam. According to Täranātha the Sarvāstivādins reckoned the Bahusrutiyas, who are elsewhere mentioned as belonging to the Mahāsāmghikas, as one of their own sub-schools, as was also the case with the Kāsyapīyas.

The next word seems to be Kashaviyana, where, however, the sha ends in a curve,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Transl. by Schiefner, p. 272.

which may perhaps be the subscript ya. We have already found the writing kashyaviyana for kasaviyana on the Bedadi copper ladle and seen that it finds its explanation in the fact that shy became ss.

The remaining akshara may be ya, i.e. Skr. cha, or part of a pa.

The inscription may accordingly be restored as follows:

#### TEXT

Samgh[e\*] cha[du]diśe shamanana Bah[u\*][shuti]a[ka]na Kash[y]aviyana [pari-grahe\*].

#### TRANSLATION

To the order of the four quarters in the acceptance of the Bahuśrutīyaka and Kāśyapīya śramaṇas.

C

The lettering is fainter than in the case of A and B and could only be copied with great difficulty. The length of that portion which could be traced was 6 inches, and the average size of the letters  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch.

The inscription was read by M. Boyer as Yasavada samadañadimitrasa, gift of Yasavat with his mother, relatives, and friends. I do not know of any such name as Yasavat. It cannot represent Skr. Yasavat, because s never becomes s in the dialect. Moreover, the first akshara seems to be the head of a sha, and the first word is perhaps shavaasa, Skr. sravakasya. The next akshara can hardly be anything else than dha, and if the following one is ma, it is perhaps possible to read dhamasa. Then comes the stroke which M. Boyer took to be a damaged na, a clear di, and an akshara which may be mi, but also a damaged ga. The last two letters are apparently remnants of samghe. With every reserve I therefore read:

#### TEXT

shavaasa Dhamasa [ña]di[gasamghe].

#### TRANSLATION

(Gift) of the śrāvaka Dharma to the congregation of his relatives.

#### LVI. PLATE XXIII. 4: SAHR-I-BAHLOL POTSHERDS

A similar legend has already been met with in some fragments found at Takht-i-Bāhī, and Professor Lüders has shown that an inscription which Cunningham found incised on a piece of black pottery at Sahr-i-Bahlol and which he read as Maghe cha, is to be read as sa[m]ghe cha, i.e. sanighe chadudiše.

During his excavations at Sahr-i-Bahlol in the year 1909–10 Dr. Spooner found a considerable number of pottery fragments with Kharoshṭhī inscriptions in ink, and on some of them he read the word parigralw.<sup>3</sup> Sir Aurel Stein <sup>4</sup> found other fragments of the same kind, one of them bearing not less than 18 aksharas.

No materials are available from which I can form any opinion about the contents. It may be surmised that it has run sanighe chadudise acharyana Kasaviyana parigrahe.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASIAR, 1903–4, p. 291.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> ASI, v, 1875, pp. 44, 63, plate XVI, 6.

<sup>3</sup> ASIFC, 1909-10, p. 3; ASIAR, 1906-7, pp. 102 ff.: 1909-10, pp. 46 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> ASIFC, 1911-12, p. v; ASIAR, 1911-12, pp. 109 ff.; Marshall, ibidem, Pt. I, pp. 14 and 24; cf. Majumdar, List, Addenda ii.

# 12.45 9 9 4 9 9 4

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# かかかかならい、こかりつりょうかんともよう

Scale 0.10

PSYALS CARE

AHR-I-BAHLOL. CUNNINGHAM

3/5



TE 6. SHAHR-I-NAPURSÂN



8 SKĀRAH DHERĪ. YEAR 399



A. PESHAWAR MUSEUM, I



Scale 0.40

10. PESHĀWAR MUSEUM, 4



# LVII. PLATE XXIII. 5: GHAZ DHERI PEDESTAL INSCRIPTION

Ghaz Pherī is a mound opposite Pālāṭū Pherī, to the south of the road leading to Khānmai. During their excavations there in 1903, Messrs. Marshall and Vogel found a fragmentary Bodhisattva statue, with traces of a Kharoshṭhī inscription on the pedestal.<sup>1</sup>

The pedestal is reported to have been deposited in the Peshāwar Museum, where it cannot, however, be traced. Marshall and Vogel say: 'The proper right part of the legend is entirely destroyed. On the left side the lettering can be traced for a distance of 8 inches, but here also several characters are missing or injured. This part, containing the first half of the inscription, probably contained 16 aksharas, the distance between the letters, as well as their average height being about  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. We read it—kha (?) lavišae ksha(?)tra(?)pa(?)sya(?)-da(?)dha(?)sa. It will be seen that the greater part of the reading is doubtful. The only aksharas which may be said to be certain are la vi sa e in the beginning and sa at the end. Before la there is room for not more than three letters, but as the initial letter probably stood at some distance from the edge we may assume that there were only two. Of these the second can still be traced and approaches most the sign for kha. If we insert pu for the missing initial, we shall read Pukhalavišae (Skr. Pushkalavishaye), "in the district of Pushkala". The next word is perhaps the genitive of ... kshatrapa, "satrap", and for the third word we naturally expect a proper name.'

So far as I can see visae cannot represent Skr. vishaye, because sha never becomes sa, unless it is followed by y in the compound shya. Moreover, the word after ... lavisae seems to be danamukhe. The raised mu is, so far as I can see, certain. But then the word ending in lavisae can only be the genitive of the name of a female donor.

The next word certainly ended in sa, and a comparison of the Shahr-i-Nāpursān pedestal inscription makes me inclined to supply arogadakshinae after this word.

#### TEXT

.... laviśae [danamukhe] ..... sa [arogadakshinae\*].

TRANSLATION

Gift of .... laviśā, (for the bestowal of health on) ...

# LVIII. PLATE XXIII. 6: SHAHR-I-NAPURSAN PEDESTAL INSCRIPTION

No. 1194 of the Lahore Museum is a Bodhisattva pedestal, excavated in 1882 by Lieutenant M. Martin at Shahr-i-Nāpursān, between Rājar and Utmanzai in Hashtnagar. Of the statue only the feet are left, but on the pedestal is pictured a Bodhisattva with two standing figures on each side, and below is a Kharoshṭhī inscription, which has been published by Professors Bühler <sup>2</sup> and Vogel.<sup>3</sup>

The inscription consists of two lines, a long one, and a short one above the termination of the former. The longer is  $14\frac{1}{2}$  in. and the shorter 2 in. long, and the average size of letters is 1 in. in the former and  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. in the latter.

Bühler drew attention to the cursive forms of such letters as da, bu, mu, which

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ASIPU, 1903-4, p. 50; ASIAR, 1902-3, p. 176 and figure 23; 1903-4, p. 245, no. 14; Majumdar, List, no. 8.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Anzeiger der Akademie der Wissenschaften in Wien, Philologisch-Historische Classe, xxxiii, 1896, pp. 64 ff., with plate; Ind. Ant., xxv, 1896, pp. 311 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> ASIPU, 1903-4, p. 53; ASIAR, 1903-4, pp. 249 ff., and plates LXVII, 1, LXX 4; cf. Majumdar, List, no. 11.

reminded him of the Zeda, Sui Vihār, Māṇikiāla, and Wardak Vase·inscriptions, and assigned the record to the Kanishka-Vāsudeva period. Similar forms are also found in Jauliā.

Bühler and Vogel began the reading at the right corner, where we have aroga, followed by remnants of a da and a gap sufficient for three or four letters.

There cannot, however, be much doubt that the inscription begins after the gap, with Sanighamitrasam. The last akshara of the name was read as sa by Bühler, while Vogel thinks that it may stand for sya, though it looks like sam. The compound sya, which we know from Sui Vihār, is, however, different and ends in a distinct loop. Moreover, the ensuing word shamanasa has, as remarked by Vogel, the regular termination sa, and there can be little doubt that our sam is a slip for sa.

The na of shamanasa is damaged. The remaining letters of the line are absolutely certain: danamukhe Budhorumasa. The form Budhoruma for Budhavarma has already been met with in Loriyān Tangai.

As on the Jamālgarhī pedestal the continuation follows in an upper line, where we read arogada[kshi], which can be restored as arogadakshinae. We may note the short upright above the head of ga, which we have already found on the Jamālgarhī pedestal.

It has the appearance as if the engraver has not been able to complete the last word, for want of space, and that he has therefore written it once more before the first word of the inscription, where the last three aksharas have subsequently peeled off.

#### $T_{EXT}$

- L. 1 (arogada[kshiṇae\*]) Samghamitrasa(m) shamaṇasa da[ṇa]mukhe Budhoru-
  - 2 arogadakshi[nae\*].

#### TRANSLATION

Gift of the śramana Samghamitra, for the bestowal of health on Buddhavarma.

### LIX. PLATE XXIII. 7: MIR ZIYĀRAT CLAY SHERD

One of the mounds in the Shahr-i-Nāpursān group is now called Mīr Ziyārat, where a broken sherd of coarse black clay, hand-polished and with some Kharoshṭhī letters scratched on it, was excavated by Messrs. Marshall and Vogel.<sup>1</sup>

The letters seem to be mere scrawls, and they are not arranged in a line. In the proper left corner, at an angle towards the upper end of the sherd, is a letter which may be da or ba. Then follows an akshara which seems to be ma or mu, and further, pointing upwards towards the edge, a ya, and, finally, at a somewhat higher level, a vi.

# LX. PLATE XXIII. 8: SKĀRAH DHERĪ IMAGE INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 399

Skārah Pherī, or the Charcoal Mound, is situated in 34° 16′ N. and 71° 47′ E., near the village of Spinvarī, eight miles north of Chārsadda. It is the find-place of an inscribed Hāritī statue, which is now no. 1625 of the Lahore Museum.

According to M. Foucher, the style of the image and its execution betray a late date.

The inscription consists of two lines, 16 in. and 13 in. long respectively, the height of individual letters varying from  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. to  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in. It bears a date.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Sec ASIAR, 1902-3, pp. 154 ff., and fig. 10, p. 157.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See Vogel, ASIPU, 1900-1, para. 39; 1901-2, para. 16.

The date portion was first read by Dr. Stratton, whose reading was reproduced by Professor Vogel. A reading of the whole record was subsequently given by M. Boyer.

A new reading of the date was proposed by Dr. Fleet,<sup>4</sup> and accepted by Mr. Kennedy<sup>5</sup> and myself,<sup>6</sup> while M. Boyer, according to M. Foucher,<sup>7</sup> Mr. Banerji,<sup>8</sup> and Mr. Majumdar<sup>9</sup> stick to the old reading, and Professor Thomas <sup>10</sup> leaves the question open. A new reading of the record was finally given by myself.<sup>11</sup>

The inscription is cut vertically to the proper left of the image, and is very rough. The characters seem to be late. We may note the cursive *cha*, where the head is connected with the lower part in a large loop; *de*, which reminds us of the Sui Vihār inscription; the broad *ya*, which has its nearest parallels in the Wardak inscription; and the *sa*, which sometimes strongly reminds us of Jauliā.

L. 1. The first word was read vashra by Dr. Stratton, and varsha by M. Boyer. The long line which crosses the lower part of sha seems to be continued through the ensuing akshara and can hardly be a r. Besides the regular dialect form of varsha is evidently vasha; cf. the Takht-i-Bāhī and Kāldarra inscriptions. I cannot see any trace of an e-stroke, but vashe is evidently intended.

Dr. Stratton held the next word to be either ekunasitisatimae or ekanavatisatimae, and M. Boyer is positive that the former is the correct reading. Dr. Fleet, on the other hand, read ekunachadusatimae. M. Majumdar objects against this reading that chadusatimae can only mean 'the 104th'. But in Sanskrit we have chatuhsata, 400, and similarly chaüsaa in Prākrit. Such numerals were ambiguous, but there is no ambiguity when ekuna precedes.

There is not, therefore, any a priori reason for rejecting Dr. Fleet's reading, which seems to be the only possible one.

The *u*-mātrā of ku is rather indistinct, but I think it is probable. Ekaņa would represent Skr. ekānna. The letter following after na is peculiar, but cannot be va or si. I follow Dr. Fleet in taking it to be a cursive cha. The ensuing akshara is absolutely certain and cannot be anything else than du. Ti, which follows after the ensuing sa, is quite different.

Then comes ashadasa masasa, where we may note the sa of ashadasa, in which the head has become separated from the lower vertical.

After masasa comes a cross, which Dr. Stratton took to be the numeral 4, but which M. Boyer rightly read as di.

The ensuing akshara, which was left untransliterated by Dr. Stratton, was taker by M. Boyer to be the figure 10. It seems to me, however, that it is an unmistakable va.

The last four letters of l. I were read as budhavare by Dr. Stratton, while M. Boyer read Khuto.., supposing Khuto to be the name of the donor and some such word as haritimurti to have followed.

So far as I can see the first akshara is certainly sa, with an unusually high topstroke, which evidently contains the e-mātrā. I therefore take it to the preceding

<sup>5</sup> JRAS, 1912, p. 6861.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JAOS, xxiv, 1903, pp. 1 ff. <sup>2</sup> ASIPU, 1903-4, p. 53.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> BEFEO, iv, 1904, pp. 680 ff.; cf. Vogel, ASIAR, 1903-4, pp. 254 f., with plates LXIX c (the image) and LXX, 9 (the inscription).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> JRAS, 1907, pp. 184 f.; 1913, pp. 985 f.
<sup>6</sup> Ep. Ind., xiv, p. 136<sup>12</sup>; Acta Orientalia, iii, p. 70<sup>2</sup>.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> L'art gréco-bouddhique du Gandhâra, ii, p. 573<sup>1</sup>.

• JRAS, 1920, p. 203.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> List, no. 63. <sup>10</sup> JRAS, 1913, p. 1034<sup>6</sup>.

<sup>11</sup> Zeitschrift für Indologie und Iranistik, v, pp. 129 ff.

diva and read divase. But then the remaining signs can only be numerical figures, and the first one does indeed look more like a 20 than anything else. The two last ones are peculiar, but as nothing seems to have been written to the left of them, and nothing can, accordingly, be supplied, I take them to be the figures 1 1, i. e. 2.

The date is then the 22. Āshādha 399, corresponding, according to Dr. van Wijk's calculations, to the 10th May, A.D. 315.

L. 2. M. Boyer read sagabha dana samayeta dusamya ma[shu]ra tanayeshu and translated the whole, supplying haritimuti at the end of l. 1, as follows: 'The gift of Khuto (a statue of Hāritī) together with a niche (garbha). May she heal on children the small-pox, which is difficult to heal'. He thought that mashura might be derived from masha, which according to lexicographers can signify a cutaneous eruption resembling beans, and denote some eruptive disease, which attacks children, presumably small-pox. He compared the word masūrī, which is stated by lexicographers to mean small-pox.

This ingenious reading has been accepted by M. Foucher and Mr. Majumdar.

The two first aksharas are certainly saga. The bottom is, however, damaged, and we should be justified in reading svarga. The third one can hardly be bha, because there is no top-stroke. It seems to be a regular pa. Then comes a short vertical bent towards the right both at the top and the bottom, which is almost identical with the de of the Sui Vihār inscription. I therefore think that we must read sagapade or svargapade, and, in either case, take the word to represent Skr. svargapade, in the heavenly place, in heaven; cf. Pāli saggapadam.

The next akshara might be na, but everywhere else the dental n is replaced by the cerebral one, and I therefore read da, which I take together with the ensuing sama as dasama, Skr. dasamam.

Then comes, so far as I can see, a distinct bha, followed by a letter, which looks more like a ra than a ta, and a distinct du. I therefore read the beginning of 1. 2 as  $s[var]gapade\ dasama\ bharadu$ , may she carry the tenth in, or to, heaven.

It should be borne in mind that the sculpture represents Hāritī carrying a child. In other representations she bears one babe in her arms, and three, five, or eight children are playing about, and in the legend she has 500 sons, the youngest one being Pingala, her favourite. It is possible that our sculpture bears witness to another version, according to which the number of her babes was ten. Or there may be a reference to a child of the donor, which may have been carried away by small-pox.

I accept M. Boyer's reading samama for the next three aksharas, but I take the bar crossing the right limb of the first ma to be a r. The ensuing letter, which M. Boyer read shu, is quite different from sha in l. 1. The stroke which seems to run downwards through the top is probably an unintended continuation of the da standing above in l. 1. Lower down there is a cross-bar, and what M. Boyer took to be an u seems to me to be an r-loop. I therefore read rtha. The next letter does not look like ra, because the upper vertical is missing. It might be va, but it is still more like the e of line 1; only the estroke has run into the unintended continuation of the cross-bar of the preceding akshara. I therefore read sarmamarthae and follow a suggestion made by Mr. Helmer Smith, to explain arthae as corresponding to Skr. arthaye, I request.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Foucher, The beginnings of Buddhist art and other essays. Transl. by L. A. Thomas and F. W. Thomas. Paris, London, 1917, pp. 271 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> It would be possible to read *sarmarthae* or *sarmarthaa*, for the purpose of protection, taking the apparent [r] mama as one akshara, rma, but such a reading does not seem to be likely.

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For the last word I accept the reading tanayeshu, though the e of ye and the u of shu are uncertain.

My reading and interpretation are, accordingly, as follows:

#### TEXT

- L. 1 vash[e\*] ck[u]na[cha]duśatimae ashadasa masasa divase 20 1 1
  - 2 s[var]gapade daśama bharadu śa[r]mam artha[e] taṇay[e]sh[u].

#### TRANSLATION

In the four-hundredth year less one (i. e. 399), on the 22. day of the month Ashāḍha. In heaven may she carry the tenth. I ask for protection of the children.

Mr. Helmer Smith agrees with me in thinking that 1. 2 is probably metrical, and thinks it possible that we have before us a primitive dohā: -00-000 (6+4+3), -0-0-00-00 (6+4+3), instead of the usual 6+4+3, 6+4+1. If we are right, this is the earliest known example of a such a metre, and the inscription may prove of importance for the history of Indian metrics.

# LXI. PLATE XXIII. 9: PESHĀWAR MUSEUM INSCRIPTION, No. 1

No dated inscriptions have been found in the Khudu Khel country, to the west of Mahāban, and we do not know whether the old Saka era remained in use there also after the accession of Kanishka, or was replaced by the reckoning introduced by him. A priori we should be inclined to think that the state of things was the same as in Hashtnagar. I therefore deal with the records found there in this connexion.

No. 1 of the Peshāwar Museum is the upper left-hand corner of a slab,  $8\frac{1}{2}$  in. high, which has been brought by Colonel Pipon from the Khudu Khel country. The exact find-place is not recorded.

The fragment contains the termination of two lines of Kharoshthī letters, written in a cursive hand and sloping downwards. The size of individual aksharas varies between  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. and 2 in.<sup>1</sup>

The characters remind us of the Wardak Vase, the Dhammapada manuscript, and the Niya documents, especially the final akshara of l. 1, which looks exactly like the sign which Professor Rapson transliterates as an underlined sa in the Niya documents and which also occurs in l. 1 of the Wardak inscription.

L. I contains six aksharas, the first of which is defaced. It is perhaps vi. The second is almost certainly ha, and the third ra, or rather ram, with the same irrational anusvara as in esha viharam in the last line of the Wardak inscription. The next akshara looks like the sva of the Sui Vihār and Māṇikiāla inscriptions, but might also be tva. Then follows ma, with faint traces of an i-mātrā, and the cursive sa mentioned above. The backward bend of the vertical looks like an r-stroke, and I therefore transliterate s(r)a, as in the Mathurā Lion Capital inscription, assuming that the sign denotes a modification of the sound, perhaps towards a voiced s. The whole word, therefore, seems to be [vi]hara(m)svam[i]s(r)a, corresponding to Skr. viharasvaminah.

L. 2 likewise consists of six aksharas, and again the first one is defaced, but may be vi. Also the second is damaged, but may be to. Then follows an a with a curious curve attached to the top and traces of an e-stroke. I take it to be an e corrected to an a. Or the engraver may have worked from a rough ink draft and subsequently have found traces

of the draft remaining after he had finished, wherefore he also incised the old outline. The next akshara is ya, and I therefore read [a]ya, Skr. ayam. The ensuing akshara may be khu, with an irregular angular u to the right of the vertical. If the second akshara is to, however, we may also read tu, and as the last letter is certainly bo, I read tubo and take this to be a contamination of stubo and thubo; cf. the inscriptions Loriyān Tangai, No. 4860, and on the Jamālgarhī lamp.

With every reserve I therefore read:

TEXT

L. I [vi]hara(m)svam[i]s(r)a

2 [pratițha\*][vito] [a]ya [tu]bo.

#### TRANSLATION

of the master of the Vihāra . . . this stūpa was established.

# LXII. PLATE XXIII. 10: PESHAWAR MUSEUM INSCRIPTION, No. 4

No. 4 of the Peshāwar Museum is a wedge-shaped fragment, 9 in. x 11 in., which has been brought from the Khudu Khel country by Colonel Pipon. It contains remnants of two lines in Kharoshṭhī writing, with letters  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. to  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in. high.<sup>2</sup>

The characters have no characteristic features, but make the impression of being comparatively late. We may note the shape of da, which reminds us of the Jamālgarhī inscription of the year 359.

L. 1. The first of the remaining letters is much defaced, but may be ri. The second is ra or, rather, ram. I therefore restore sariram. Then follows pratithavedi, with two blurred strokes protruding from the point where the hook of pra joins the vertical, so that it would be possible to read pre. These strokes are, however, almost certainly due to the peeling off of the stone.

Then comes ga, followed by a letter which I cannot identify with certainty. It may be the same akshara which has been read as vhra in the Taxila silver scroll, with the same rounding of the top as in the Dhammapada manuscript. The long upright prevents us from reading hc. I therefore tentatively read gavhra and think it possible that bha has been omitted before ga, so that we have to supply bhagavhra, which may stand for bhag(r)avha, with vh for v, as we shall also find in the Māṇikiāla and Nowshera inscriptions. The word would then probably represent Skr. bhagavatah.

L. 2 is much defaced all through. The first akshara may be da and the second na. The third resembles the letter which I read mu in murodasa in the Zeda inscription; the fourth seems to be kho, and the fifth may be cha. With every reserve I would therefore read:

TEXT

I. 1 ... [śa\*][ri]ra[m] pratițhavedi [bha\*]gavhra[to\*]2 ... [daṇamu]kh[o cha].

TRANSLATION

establishes a relic of Bhagavat . . . and the gift . . .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Above, pp. 108 and 116.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Majumdar, List, no. 52.

# LXIII. PLATE XXIV. 1: NAUGRĀM INSCRIPTION

Naugrām is a village in the Khudu Khel country, situated in 34° 14′ N. and 72° 29′ E. In September 1902 Mr. G. O. Roos Keppel found a stone, 1 ft. 10 in. long and 3½ in. broad, and bearing an incomplete and partly defaced Kharoshṭhī inscription, in an old building near the village. The stone is now no. I. 154 of the Lahore Museum.

The characters, which vary in size between 1 in. and  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in., remind us of the Dharmarājikā inscriptions; cf. especially the ya. The akshara e has a curious forward curve of the vertical, which may be compared with the flourish in the last letter of the Takhti-Bāhī record.

The beginning of the record is missing. The first akshara which is preserved seems to be ta, the second may be kha, or ba. There are apparently traces of a vertical joining the sloping leg near the broken edge, but they are perhaps due to the pecling off of the stone. I tentatively read kha. Then follows lac, and the first word is consequently [takha]lae, which must be the genitive of a female noun or name, which may be complete or incomplete.

The next word is clear, being arogadakshinae, whereafter six aksharas have become so much defaced that I cannot make them out. It seems possible to read vradhichhaya, Skr. vriddhāchchhaya, but the reading is too uncertain. After two more defaced letters we have la, followed by a raised vertical, which is placed so near the hook of la that it can scarcely be anything else than the i-mātrā. The last two letters are yaṇa, and liyaṇa is perhaps the genitive plural of a noun derived from the name or noun occurring in the beginning of the line.

#### TEXT

[Takha]lae arogadakshinae [vradhichhaya?]....liyana.

#### TRANSLATION

For the bestowal of health on Takhalā (?) . . of the . . liyas.

# LXIV. PLATE XXIV. 3: PESHĀWAR INSCRIPTION ON WRITING-BOARD

No. 347 of the Peshāwar Museum is à sculpture showing the Bodhisattva seated with a writing-board in his lap.<sup>2</sup> The sculpture belongs to the Pipon collection, and it is therefore probable that it hails from the Khudu Khel country.

On the writing-board are some Kharoshṭhī letters, which have been tentatively read by Mr. Majumdar a sparana[hi]da.

The letters vary in size from  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. to  $\frac{1}{2}$  in., and seem to be fairly well preserved. Their shape is, however, partly peculiar, and I am not able to read the record with certainty.

The first akshara looks like a defective sam. The greater portion of the head is missing, and there is a short vertical in front of the anusvāra-curve. A similar mutilated sam, without this vertical, is found as the first akshara of a Lahore inscription, representing the Bodhisattva in school.

The second letter looks like the compound tsa of the Sui Vihār record. Only the front vertical of the subscribed sa is missing. Then comes re, and the first three aksharas might accordingly be saintsare. Now we find in the Kharoshṭhī Dhammapada that Skr.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Vogel, ASIAR, 1903-4, p. 250<sup>2</sup>; Majumdar, List, no. 44.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See Spooner, Handbook to the Sculptures in the Peshawar Museum, p. 9. 
<sup>3</sup> List, no. 56.

ins becomes ts, i.e. ints; thus satsara, Skr. sainsāra A² 6. I think therefore that we are justified in explaining the three first aksharas of our record as corresponding to Skr. sainsare, in the world of phenomena.

Then comes an akshara which looks like la, with a sloping line across the head. Though the line slopes the wrong way, I think it possible to read li.

The next akshara seems to be de, with the e-stroke protruding from the upper curve of the letter and running into the i of li. Then comes a fairly clear va, and, finally, apparently a broad ma.

If this reading is correct, we should have: saintsare li devama, and this reminds us of the passage in the Lalitavistara, where the Bodhisattva shows his superiority in writing and other arts: manushyaloke that cha devaloke gandharvaloke py asurendraloke uyāvanti kechil lipi sarvaloke tatraisha paraingatu suddhasattvah, in the world of men and in the world of gods, in the Gandharva world also, in the world of the Asura chiefs, as many writings as there are in the whole world, with them this pure being is thoroughly conversant.

If our inscription contains the same idea, we must assume that li is an abbreviation for livi and that the scene illustrated belongs to the Śilpasamdarśanaparivarta and not to the Lipiśālāsamdarśanaparivarta.

#### TEXT

samtsare li devama . . .

#### TRANSLATION

in the world (whichever) writings (of) gods and men (there are).

# LXV. PLATE XXIV. 2: LAHORE INSCRIPTION ON WRITING-BOARD

No. 206 of the Lahore Museum, of unknown provenance, represents the Bodhisattva standing in front of the teacher Viśvāmitra, who holds a writing-board on which some Kharoshṭhī letters are visible. They have been read by M. Boyer as saparana...ta, i.e. saparana hita, Skr. svaparāṇan hitam. This has been explained as a reference to the Bodhisattva's words in the Lipiśālāsamdarśanaparivarta of the Lalitavistara, which deals with his first visit to school. When he was examined in the alphabet, he recited an appropriate stanza connected with each letter. When the short a was spoken, he uttered the words about the impermanence of the Samskāras: a(nityasarvasamskāra-śabdaḥ). After having heard the long a, he recited the words about one's own welfare and that of others: a(tmaparahitaśabdaḥ), &c.

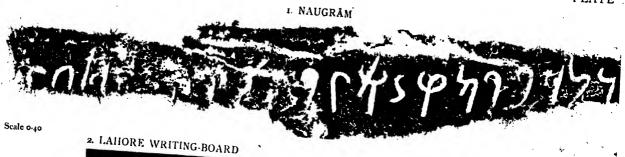
M. Foucher thought that we must supply hi, as suggested by M. Boyer, under the teacher's right hand, and ata, hidden by the left hand. He consequently read [ata\*]sa parana [hi\*]ta,\* and explained the inscription as a reference to the school scene narrated in the Lalitavistara. He is aware of the fact that we should expect the legend to bear reference to the very first words of the Bodhisattva at the rehearsal of the alphabet, which the Lalitavistara gives as anityah sarvasamskārašabdah, and thinks that the sculptor has had in his mind the Prākrit attā, which begins with a short a. We should accordingly have to assume that the tradition about the events during the Bodhisattva's visit to school

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Ed. Lefmann, p. 146.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> BEFEO, iv, 1904, pp. 685 ff.; cf. Vogel, ASIPU, 1903-4, p. 50; ASIAR, 1903-4, pp. 245 ff., and plate LXVI, no. 1; Majumdar, List, no. 28.

<sup>3</sup> Ed. Lefmann, pp. 123 ff.

<sup>4</sup> L'art gréco-bouddhique du Gandhara, i, pp. 323 ff.



4. YÃKUBI



Full size

3. PESHĀWAR WRITING-BOARD



Full size



5. PESHĀWAR MUSEUM, 3

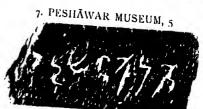
Scale 0-25

Scale 0.50

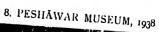
6. PESHĀWAR MUSEUM, 7



Scale 0.40



Scale 0.40





9. NOWSHERA



has been recast in the Lalitavistara. The ātmaparahitasabdaḥ was, in the old tale, connected with the first letter of the alphabet, the short a. To the author of the Lalitavistara, on the other hand, the word for 'self' was ātman, with a long a, and the ātmaparahitasabdaḥ must, accordingly, be transferred from the first to the second letter of the alphabet. M. Foucher sees, in this state of affairs, a proof of the relative independence of the monuments with reference to the texts.

An examination of the plate, which is reproduced from a cast, will show some features which were invisible in the plates from which M. Boyer read the inscription. The first akshara cannot be sa, but is a mutilated  $sa\dot{m}$ , where the head must be imagined under the Bodhisattva's left hand. In the second a horizontal protrudes from the upper part of the vertical of the apparent pa, i. e. we have the same modified form of ka which occurs in the words  $sa\dot{m}k'ara$  and dukhak'andha of the Kurram casket inscription.

We must therefore evidently read samk'arana, Skr. samskāranam. Now there is sufficient room for two or three aksharas under the teacher's right hand, and then follows a letter which seems to be ta. We may accordingly restore the whole as samk'arana anichata, or, dharmata, i. e. there is a thorough agreement between the sculpture and the Lalitavistara, a result which is of some interest for our understanding of the art of Gandhāra.

The scene depicted is not, then, the same as in no. lxiv, where the Bodhisattva and not the teacher holds the writing-board.

Text Translation [s]amk'arana [anicha\*]ta. (the impermanence) of the Samskāras.

I add some records which may belong to the period after the introduction of the Kanishka era, but where we have no indications to show that they hail from districts where it replaced the old Saka reckoning.

### LXVI. PLATE XXIV. 4: YĀKUBI IMAGE INSCRIPTION

No. 280 of the Peshāwar Museum is a sculpture, presented by Mr. Wilson-Johnston, I.C.S., as found in a nallah near Yākubi in the Swābi Tahsīl of the Peshāwar District. According to M. Foucher the sculpture represents the miracle of Śrāvastī, through which the Buddha triumphed over his rivals, the six chiefs of sects.

Dr. Spooner 2 thought that this identification was very doubtful and stated that it is not supported by the inscription found on the sculpture.

The latter is incised on the band below the sculpture and has been published by Dr. Spooner,<sup>3</sup> with remarks by Mr. Venkayya and Professor Vogel. It is  $13\frac{1}{2}$  in. long, and the average size of letters is  $\frac{3}{4}$  in.

The right-hand portion of the sculpture has been broken away, with the result that about six aksharas are missing at the beginning. Also the left-hand corner is damaged, with the consequent disappearance of about three letters. Above this defaced portion some letters, originally apparently three, have been incised in an upper line. Two of them are still visible.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JA, x, xiii, 1909, pp. 5 ff., translated in Beginnings of Buddhist Art, Paris, London, 1917, pp. 147 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> ASIAR, 1908-9, pp. 130 ff., with plate XLVII; cf. Handbook to the Sculptures in the Peshawar Museum, p. 50, with plate.

<sup>3</sup> l.c., cf. Majumdar, List, no. 94.

The characters point to a comparatively late date. Ka reminds us of the Peshāwar Museum inscription of the year 168; kha of Zeda and Ārā; cha of Māṇikiāla; ja and sa of Wardak.

The missing beginning must have contained the name of the donor in the genitive. The first word which is preserved is danamukhe, where mu has the same form as in the Ghaz Dherī inscription.

The next word was read as Sadhakamitrasha by Dr. Spooner, who took this to be the name of the donor in the genitive. But the termination asya cannot become asha The first letter is certainly sa, but the second seems to be cha, of the same shape as in the Māṇikiāla inscription, the upper horizontal apparently protruding in a slight curve to the right of the vertical. The third is absolutely different from the ka in the following jinakumaro, and the top-line protrudes on both sides of the vertical. I therefore read bha or, perhaps, bhra. Then follows mi and an akshara, which I agree with Dr. Spooner in reading as ta. I cannot see any trace of a r-stroke below, but I take the line which slopes backwards at the top to be an e-matra; cf. the e of danamukhe. There are some traces of a forward curve at the bottom, which might be taken for an *u*-loop, but they seem to be due to a mistake of the engraver. The next akshara is almost certainly sha, and I think that the u-loop has originally stood at the bottom of this sha. I therefore read sachabhamitesh[u], Skr. satyabhramiteshu, among those who had become confounded through the truth, and see in this word a reference to the tirthyas whom the Buddha confounded through his miracles and preaching at Śrāvastī.

The next word is *jinakumaro*. Here as in the Panjtār inscription masculine a-bases seem to form their nominative in o, while e is the termination of neuter a-bases. Jinakumaro can hardly mean 'Royal Buddha', as suggested by Dr. Spooner, or 'pious monk', as translated by Mr. Venkayya, but means 'the young jina', and the term finds its explanation in Buddhist tradition, according to which the Buddha was a younger teacher than the tīrthyas whom he confounded, one of whom, Sañjaya, had been the teacher of Śāriputra and Maudgalyāyana, before they joined the Buddha. The miracle seems to be placed by tradition in the interval between the sixth and seventh rainy seasons after the Bodhi, i.e. the Buddha was about 40 years old.

After jinakumaro comes hidagama or, rather, hidagrama. Professor Vogel read hidagama and explained this as Skr. hitakāma, but the word is devoid of a case suffix and must evidently be connected with what follows. Dr. Spooner explained hida as corresponding to Skr. iha as in Aśoka's edicts, but no such form is found in later Kharoshṭhī inscriptions. Moreover, we never find such indefinite terms as 'in this village'. I therefore think that Hida is the name of a village.

The next akshara is va. Dr. Spooner states that it may be vu, but I agree with him in thinking that an examination of the original makes the reading va almost certain. He suggests to supply sinam va and to go on with the upper line, which he reads rada. Or else, he thinks, 'the stone was injured either before the inscription was begun... or while it was inscribed; for it seems easy to read the existing letters as one word, varada an epithet of the Buddha'. He thus arrives at the following translation: 'this royal Buddha [to be] a source of blessing for this village,... or, for the people of this village'.

The last aksharas of the line cannot be restored. The existing traces are not absolutely against reading stavena, and Hidagramavastavena would mean 'by the resident of the Hida village'.

In the upper line there has evidently been three letters, the first of which seems to have been ra. The second seems to be identical with the letter which I read cha in sacha, but shows traces of an i-stroke. The third looks like the akshara which I read to in bhamitesh[u], but seems to be provided with an o-stroke. I therefore read rachito. It is possible, but perhaps not likely, that the name of the artist was contained in an upper line above the beginning of the record.

I thus arrive at the following reading and interpretation:

#### TEXT

L. 1 .... danamukhe sa[chabha]mitesh[u] jinakumaro Hidag[r]amava[stavena\*] 2 rachito.

#### TRANSLATION

Gift (of . . . .), the young Jina among those who were confounded through truth, executed by the resident of Hida village . . .

# LXVII. PLATE XXIV. 5: PESHĀWAR MUSEUM INSCRIPTION, No. 3

No. 3 of the Peshāwar Museum is a fragment of a building stone, belonging to the Deane collection. On one side is a rough drawing of a hand, and on the face above two letters, evidently masons' marks, placed obliquely against each other and measuring 1 in. and 2 in respectively. One of them is mi, the other probably me, though it might be sha.

# LXVIII. PLATE XXIV. 7: PESHĀWAR MUSEUM INSCRIPTION, No. 5

No. 5 of the Peshāwar Museum is a small stone of unknown provenance, measuring 9 in. by  $6^3_4$  in., and belonging to the Deane collection.

It bears a fragmentary Kharoshthī inscription of seven aksharas, varying in size from  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. to  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in.

The characters are similar to those of the  $\bar{A}r\bar{a}$  inscription. Note especially ka, de, and ya. The left-hand vertical of ya is, however, exceptionally long. The ma of me has been placed almost on end.

The reading does not present any difficulty.

# Техт karavide Metrey[e][ņa\*].

#### TRANSLATION

Caused to be made by Maitreya.

#### LXIX. PLATE XXIV. 6: PESHĀWAR MUSEUM INSCRIPTION, No. 7

No. 7 of the Peshāwar Museum is another fragment, belonging to the same collection, with a few letters,  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. to  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in. high, in two lines.

L. 1 contains traces of an unidentifiable letter followed by dani.

L. 2 traces of what may be dhe, and then a.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Majumdar, List, no. 50.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Majumdar, List, no. 53.

# LXX. PLATE XXIV. 8: PESHĀWAR SCULPTURE, No. 1938

No. 1938 of the Peshāwar Museum is a sculpture representing two wrestlers. In the upper right-hand corner is a short Kharoshṭhī legend, consisting of four aksharas, to 1 inch high. The type of the characters points to the later Kushāṇa period.

The reading is perfectly certain, viz. *Minamdrasa*, of Minamdra, and probably gives the name of the donor. *Minamdra* is the Greek Menandros and represents an older form of the name than Pāli Milinda.<sup>1</sup>

The chief importance of the inscription rests with the fact that it furnishes a new instance of the use of Greek names in North-western India at a comparatively late date.

# LXXI. PLATE XXIV. 9: NOWSHERA PEDESTAL INSCRIPTION

On the pedestal of a sculpture in the Officers' Mess of the then 82nd Panjāb Infantry regiment the chaplain, Rev. J. E. H. Williams, discovered a Kharoshṭhī inscription.<sup>2</sup> The regiment has since been removed to Buner, as the <sup>5</sup>/<sub>1</sub> Panjāb Regiment.

The inscription is 5 inches long and consists of twelve aksharas,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. to  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in. high. The characters remind us of the Kala Sang and Shakardarra stones and the Peshāwar Museum inscription of the year 168 (ka), of the Kharoshṭhī Dhammapada (dha), and of the Ārā and Hashtnagar inscriptions (sa).

The first akshara is evidently dhi, of the same shape as is often found in the Dhammapada manuscript; the second is the same letter which I have read as vha in the Peshāwar Museum inscription, No. 4; the third is the same ka which occurs in the records mentioned above, and the fourth and fifth are ra and sa. Dhivhakarasa may correspond to Skr. Dīpankarasya and be the name of the donor or of the Buddha pictured in the sculpture. We may compare ddhivajha for divasa in a Kharoshṭhī document from Turkestan.<sup>3</sup>

Then follow ta and a curious letter which seems to be khti; two aksharas which I read as drena, and three letters which seem to be karide. The curious takhtidra must, accordingly, be the name of the sculptor or of the donor.

Reading and explanation are, throughout, uncertain.

Техт Dhivhakarasa Takhtidreņa karide.

Translation
Of Dīpaṁkara, made by Takhtidra.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Pelliot, JA, XI, iv, 1914, pp. 380 f., 384 f.; Lüders, Kalpanāmaņditikā, p. 347.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Wasi-ud-Din, ASIFC, 1912-13, p. iii; Marshall, ASIAR, 1912-13, P. I, p. 33; Majumdar, List, no. 45.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Konow, Acta Orientalia, ii, pp. 124 ff.

# C. INSCRIPTIONS CONNECTED WITH THE KANISHKA ERA

The Kanishka era is used in inscriptions found over a wide area, from Sārnāth in the east and to Khawat in the west, from Jalālābād and Māṇikiāla in the north, and to Bahāwalpur in the south. Only one certain instance of its use has, on the other hand, been found to the north of the Kābul River. I here bring together those records which are dated in this era, and some other ones which have been found in such localities where we have every reason for thinking that it was used during the rule of the Kanishka dynasty.

### LXXII. PLATE XXV. 1: KANISHKA CASKET INSCRIPTIONS

Shāh-jī-kī Dherī was the name of two large mounds outside the Ganj gate of Peshāwar city, where Cunningham and Foucher had located the big Kanishka stūpa mentioned by Chinese pilgrims. This location has been proved to be correct through Dr. Spooner's excavations in the years 1908 and 1909.

He found extensive remains of a large stūpa, and within it a rude relic chamber, containing a relic casket, composed of an alloy, in which copper predominates and which seems to have been originally guilded. The main body of the casket, which is cylindrical, measures 5 in. in diameter, with a height of 4 in. On this body fitted a deep lid, supporting three figures in the round, giving a total height of 7½ in. The three figures represent the Buddha, Brahmā, and Indra. The upper surface of the lid has a decoration consisting of the incised petals of a full-blown lotus. The lip which fits on to the top of the casket proper shows a highly ornamented band of geese or swans in low relief. The main body of the casket is decorated with a series of three seated Buddha figures, supported by a long undulating garland upheld by little Erotes, with larger worshipping figures at intervals, which device terminates at a larger group of figures, representing King Kanishka standing between the Sun and the Moon, the Mirro and Mao of Kanishka's coins.<sup>2</sup>

The casket carries some lines of Kharoshthī writing, punched into the metal in a series of faint dots. They occur on the upper surface of the lid, between the flying geese on the lower edge of the lid and in the level spaces above and below the figures decorating the main body of the casket.

The inscriptions have been edited by Dr. Spooner,<sup>3</sup> whose readings can now be checked by means of the excellent photographs supplied by Mr. Hargreaves.

The letters are, generally speaking, well executed. There is frequently a short bottom-stroke projecting to the left, as in the Kurram casket inscription. Intervocalic g is, if we abstract from the evidently foreign name Agisala, always provided with an r-stroke, added in a sharp angle, i. c. it was probably a fricative. The role of the cerebral

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. ASIFC, 1907-8, pp. 17 ff.: 1908-9, pp. 14 ff.; ASIAR, 1908-9, pp. 38 ff.: 1909-10, pp. 135 ff.; Marshall, JRAS, 1909, pp. 1056 ff., with plate 11.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. the illustrations ASIAR, 1908-9, pl. XII, XIII; Foucher, L'art gréco-bouddhique du Gandhâra, ii, pl. VI.

<sup>8</sup> ASIAR, 1908-9, pp. 51 ff.; 1909-10, pp. 135 ff., with plates LII and LIII; cf. Majumdar List, no. 60.

#### 136 INSCRIPTIONS CONNECTED WITH THE KANISHKA ERA

and dental n's seems to be inverted, the former being used as an initial, the latter between vowels. The letter ya has a broad head, almost as in some of the ya's of the Wardak vasc. We may also note the compounds rya and rva.

Dr. Spooner distinguishes four different records.

Ī

The first is incised on the upper surface of the lid, beginning behind the figure of the Buddha and running across the petals of the lotus with which the surface is decorated. The reading is perfectly clear: acharyana(na) sarvastivatina(na) pratigrahe. As already noted, I take the dental na to denote the cerebral. Dr. Spooner took the bottom-stroke of sarvastivatina to indicate the anusvāra, but exactly the same stroke is found in the preceding va, where there cannot be any question of reading vain. In his last paper he also read parigrahe, but pratigrahe is perfectly certain. It should be noted that the r-stroke of grahe is different from where gr seems to indicate a fricative g.

II

A second inscription is found on the lower edge of the lid, between the figures of the flying geese. It is much defaced, and Dr. Spooner, who originally thought that he could see three connected aksharas, ka, na, shka, did not venture to maintain even this hypothetical reading. With the help of Mr. Hargreaves's photographs it now seems possible to read at least parts of the record.

It evidently begins below the Buddha figure, to the left of the goose below the beginning of the upper legend, and the first akshara is sam, so that it is clear that we have to do with a date. Unfortunately the ensuing passage is badly corroded, but it seems possible to read the signs following after sam as 1 ma, i.e. the casket is dated in the first year of the Kanishka era.

After the corroded space following on  $sa\dot{m}$  comes a goose, and then an interval where nothing can be seen, another goose, and, in the ensuing interval, an indistinct akshara, which seems to be sa, followed by kani, where the dental n perhaps denotes the cerebral nasal. I think that we can restore the text as  $sa\dot{m}$  i maharajasa Kani(n)shkasa. After the two aksharas which I restore as shkasa there is room for one or perhaps two letters. What can be seen is a vertical, which is evidently an i-stroke and which seems to be crossed by a horizontal. The whole might be vi or si, but I do not venture to attempt a restoration. Then comes another goose; three fairly distinct letters ma, na, and na, another goose; a na or na, a defaced letter, which seems to be na, another akshara, which I cannot make out, a na, a na, and na. With great reserve I therefore restore na, na, and n

III

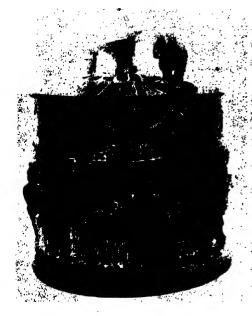
A third line is found on the main body of the casket, between the heads of the figures of the principal frieze. It runs deyadharme sarvasatvana[m] (nam) hidasuhartha[m] bhavatu. Dr. Spooner read deyadharmo, but the e-stroke is certain.

١V

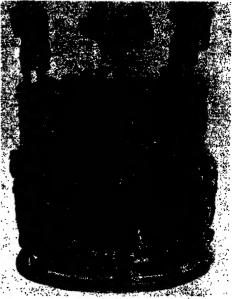
A fourth line is incised between the feet of the figures in the main frieze. Dr. Spooner read dasa Agisala navakarmi (K)anishkasa vihare Mahasenasa samgharame,

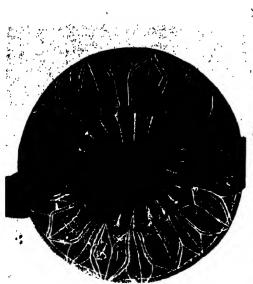


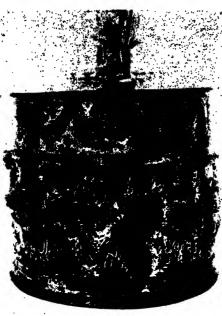
# 1. KANISHKA CASKET













2. SHĂH-JĪ-KI DHERĪ BRICKS



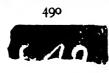


















Scale 0.25

explaining dasa as Skr. dāsa, a slave, and Agišala as representing the Greek name Agesilaos.

There is an interval between the two first aksharas da and sa, and some dots are visible below the ornamental streamers which depend from the frieze, but they are not part of the writing. The g of Agisala is devoid of the otiose r-stroke and provided with a forward projection of the bottom of the vertical, which has not come out in the photograph. The n of navakarmi is the usual cerebral n. I have already remarked that the significance of the two n-signs seems to be inverted in these inscriptions. The ensuing a I draw to this word and read navakarmia, i.e. navakarmia. There can, however, be some doubt whether it is not possible to read navakarmia.

The ensuing akshara is certainly ne, i.e. probably ne, and not ni, and it is clear that we must supply Ka before it. The intention has evidently been to arrange the word Kaneshkasa so that two aksharas stood on either side of the king's figure. It is possible that the letter ne was engraved before the remaining aksharas in order to ensure this, and that the result was that the engraver had not enough room for entering Ka. But it is also possible that we have to do with a mere carelessness.

It seems probable that the whole forms one continuous record, beginning with II, which contained the date, and ending with I. The mention of the navakarmika may be due to Agisala himself; cf. the Patika and Māṇikiāla inscriptions. The passage containing his name seems to interrupt the context and may be considered as a parenthetical addition. As remarked by M. Foucher, the casket was not destined for public exhibition. It was to be deposited in the relic chamber and had only for a moment to pass through the hands of a king who was little qualified to judge about its merits. If M. Foucher is right in thinking that Agisala had been paid for a gold casket and substituted a gilded one of bronze, he may have had the more reason for attempting to acquire merit by having his name associated with the gift.

#### TEXT

- L. 1 sam [1 ma][haraja\*]sa Kani(ni)[skhasa\*]. imana(na)g(r)ar[e] [dha]...g(r)aryaka
  - 2 deyadharme sarvasatvana[m](nam) hidasuhartha[m] bhavatu
  - 3 dasa Agiśala na(na)vakarmia [Ka\*]ne(ne)shkasa vihare Mahasena(na)sa samgharame
  - 4 acharyana(na) sarvastivatina(na) pratigrahe.

# TRANSLATION

In the year 1 of (the mahārāja) Kanishka, in the town . ima, connected with the . . . mansion, this religious gift—may it be for the welfare and happiness of all beings,—the slave Agiśala was the architect,—in Kanishka's Vihāra, in Mahāsena's Samghārāma, in the acceptance of the Sarvāstivādin teacher.

# LXXIII. PLATE XXV. 2: SHĀH-JĪ-KĪ DHERĪ INSCRIBED BRICKS

Among the debris on the western edge of the western projection of the main stūpa at Shāh-jī-kī Dherī were several fragments of inscribed bricks.<sup>2</sup> They are now in the Peshāwar Museum, as nos. 484-93.

No. 484, four letters, on an average 2 in. high: Budhasena.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> l. c., p. 542.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. ASIFC, 1908-9, p. 21; ASIAR, 1908-9, pp. 55 f., with fig. 4; Majumdar, List, no. 59.

No. 485, three letters, averaging  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. in height, read as *divasa* by Dr. Spooner. The third akshara is, however, plainly ra and not sa.

No. 486, three aksharas and traces of a fourth,  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in. to 2 in. high. The first is uncertain, but may be va, and the ensuing ones are nasa.

No. 487, one incomplete me, I in. high, evidently the end of a word.

No. 488, one letter, ma, I in. high, but placed obliquely, so that it is evidently only a mason's mark.

No. 489, the lower part of two verticals.

No. 490, the upper portions of three aksharas, perhaps ayad . .

No. 491, the greater portion of a great mi.

No. 492, three letters, I in. to 1\frac{1}{4} in. high, marami, or, perhaps, matami.

No. 493, one letter,  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in. high, di.

# LXXIV. PLATE XXVI. 1: SUI VIHAR COPPER-PLATE INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 11

Sui Vihār is the name of a ruined stūpa about 16 miles south-west of Bahāwalpur, at 71° 34' E. and 29° 18' N., where a copper-plate, bearing a Kharoshṭhī inscription, was found in 1869 by Rev. G. Yeates.

The stupa has been described and illustrated by Major Stubbs 1 as a tower, about 45 ft. high, but 6 or 8 ft. were stated to have fallen down shortly before his visit. 'Half the exterior height is made up of a mound; and about 20 ft. above the place where the tower rises from the mound, there are the remains of a large square chamber, about 8 ft. square, its sides facing the cardinal points. Above the floor of this, the walls rise at present about 11 ft. high. In the centre of the floor there is a square hole of 16 in., opening into a shaft of the same size down to the top of the mound. This shaft is quite exposed from about 3 ft. of the floor down to the top of the mound, by the falling away of half the tower, whenever that occurred. The tower is built of very large sun-dried bricks,  $17'' \times 13'' \times 3.5''$ . But in this chamber was formerly a flooring of burnt bricks of the same size as the sun-dried ones, laid in lime cement with the copper-plate bedded in the middle, while round the plate on the four sides, walls of the same kind of brick and mortar were raised, about 2 ft. high, forming a sort of chamber with the copper-plate at the bottom. In this the coins, mixed with some pieces of iron, a few beads, fragments of ornaments, all mixed up with ashes and earth, were found. The men charged with the clearing out of this, unfortunately pulled the whole of the masonry down.'

The plate is 30 in. square, with rounded corners, and the inscription is incised in four lines, along three of the sides and a quarter of the fourth side. It was forwarded by Major Stubbs to Sir E. C. Bayley and afterwards presented to the Asiatic Society of Bengal, where it is now preserved.

The inscription has been published by Messrs. Dowson,<sup>2</sup> Bayley,<sup>3</sup> Hoernle,<sup>4</sup> Bhagvānlāl Indrājī,<sup>6</sup> and N. G. Majumdar,<sup>6</sup> and the letters of the inscription, from Hoernle's plate, were made use of for cols. x-xii of Plate 1 in Bühler's Palaeography.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JASB, xxxix, i, 1870, pp. 65 ff., with plate II.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JRAS, N.S., iv, 1869, pp. 477 ff., with plate 4, copied by Major Stubbs, ibidem, vol. v, 1870, p. 196.

<sup>3</sup> JASB, XXXIX, i, 1870, p. 65, with plate.

<sup>4.</sup> Ind. Ant., x, 1881, pp. 324 ff., with plates; cf. PASB, 1881, p. 139.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Ind. Ant., xi, 1882, pp. 128 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Sir Asutosh Mookerjee Silver Jubilee Volumes, III, i, 1922, pp. 459 ff., with plates; cf. also R. D. Banerji, Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, pp. 47, 55; JRAS, 1920, pp. 203, 205; Konow, Ep. Ind., xiv, p. 136; Majumdar, List, no. 64.

The characters are Kharoshthī of a cursive type, and they originally consisted of punctured dots, and were subsequently engraved in full, though some portions still show traces of the old dots. The size of individual letters varies from  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. to 1 in. The preservation is generally good, but a few letters are partially obliterated by the effects of occidation. Most of them occur in the third line, which is, on the whole, executed with less care than the other ones.

There is an evident effort to separate the spoken words or word-groups by means of small intervals, just as is the case in the oldest Indian manuscript, which is of about the same date as our inscription.<sup>1</sup> The language is a Sanskritized Prākrit.

With regard to the shape of the letters, we may note the frequent use of a short bottom-stroke, protruding towards the left. In consequence of the manner in which the inscription has been executed, the length of this bottom-stroke varies. Dr. Hoernle thought that it was sometimes intended to mark a long vowel. There does not, however, seem to be any valid reason for assuming that such was the case. In a few cases this stroke has become a curve, which looks like an anusvāra; cf. se in divase, l. 1; ni in viharasvamiņi, l. 3. In such cases I shall transliterate (ni). A genuine anusvāra occurs in several places; thus, sanva[t]sare, l. 1; yaṭḥim, l. 2, &c.

With regard to individual letters, we may note the a with a subscript ya in the beginning of 1. 2; the rare cerebral ta in kuṭimbini, 1. 3; the de of devaputrasya, 1. 1; the line across the right side of the initial ma; the irregular shape of the compounds tsa in sanwatsare, 1. 1, and rma in dharmakathisya, 1. 2, and the cursive sva in viharasvamini(ni), 1. 3.

L. 1. The cross-bar of the initial ma was taken by Dr. Hoernle to denote the long a. It seems more likely that it marks the beginning of the inscription, as the similar bar over the left termination of ma in the Mount Banj, and the identical cross-bar at the beginning of the Ārā inscription. The reading does not present much difficulty: maharajasya rajatirajasya devaputrasya Kan[i]shkasya samva[i]sare ekadase sam 10 I Daïsi(m)kasya masas[y]a divase(m) athavise di 10 4 4. The compound tsa in samvatsare is slightly misdrawn and looks like chsa, and was read as such by Professor Franke.<sup>2</sup> Mr. Majumdar suggests to read chchha, but the shape of chh is quite different. The apparent anusvāra in Daïsinkasya and divasem has already been mentioned. The sya of masasya looks like sam and does not seem to have been properly executed. The termination of the genitive of masculine vowel bases is throughout sya, no doubt under the influence of Sanskrit.

L. 2. The only real difficulty is the first word, which was read atre by Bayley, antra by Dowson, atra by Bhagvānlāl, vyatra by Hoernle and Majumdar, and uta by Bühler and Johansson. As already mentioned, the first letter is evidently an ordinary a with a ya-hook, and so far as I can see, there are two possibilities. Either ya is meant to signify e or a sound approaching e, or else ya is, as Professor Lüders has proposed, a shortened writing instead of aya. This latter explanation is the most likely one, because we should not expect etra in such a Sanskritized record, and because ayatra is supported by Prākrit forms such as aammi, ayamsi, which show that the element aya was felt as a pronominal base, from which ayatra might be formed just as tatra from the base ta.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Lüders, Bruchstücke der Kalpanāmaņditikā des Kumāralāta, Leipzig, 1926, pp. 15 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Pāli und Sanskrit, p. 97.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> ZDMG, 43, p. 133. <sup>4</sup> Actes du huitième congrès des orientalistes, III, ii, p. 128<sup>1</sup>.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Cf. Pischel, Grammatik des Präkrit-Sprachen, § 429.

The whole line then runs: ayatra divase bhikshusya Nagadatasya dha[rma]kathisya acharya-Damatratasishyasya acharya-Bhave(va)prasishyasya yathim aropayata iha Damane. The compound rma in dharmakathisya has usually been read as kha, and the bottom-stroke of the preceding dha has been taken to be an anusvāra. The reading is, however, absolutely certain. The only difference between our akshara and the rma of the Jaulia inscription No. 6 is that the r curve has been continued backwards and cursively connected with the top of ma. The e of Bhave is, according to Dr. Hoernle, only a flaw in the plate. The same scholar took the bottom-stroke of ta in aropayata to be an o-stroke. We have, however, exactly the same shape of ta in hita, l. 4. There is a short horizontal below the ma of Damane. It cannot well signify the anusvāra, which we find in imam, 1. 3, as a distinct hook. We might think of reading mā, though we find a different akshara  $m\bar{a}$ , with a curved vertical below, in plate xxiv of Sir Aurel Stein's Serindia, in a Sanskrit verse where the reading is, consequently, absolutely certain. It is, finally, possible that the horizontal is meant for the subscript r, which is used in the termination amri in the Wardak Vase inscription, where the sound intended is evidently an aspirated m. In that case we should have to transliterate Damhane. I prefer, however, to write Da[ma]ue, leaving the question about the significance of the stroke open.

With regard to the construction of the line it seems necessary to explain aropayata as the genitive of the present participle and to take Nagadatasya aropayata as a double genitive.

The staff, yalhi, which is mentioned, was evidently put up in the shaft just below the place where the copper-plate was found, as surmised by Dr. Hoernle, who goes on to say: 'The word (yathi), in the modern form lath, is applied to monumental pillars, like the well-known stone pillars of Allahābād, Delhi, Banāras, and other places, but that can hardly be the meaning of the word here. The word is also applied to a monk's staff. This, at first sight, would seem to be a much more likely meaning. The aropana "setting up" or "assuming" of a staff might be a ceremony indicating the assumption of a high clerical office (as in the case of the Bishop's staff or crook). Or "putting up (= putting aside) the staff" might be a euphemism for "death"; the monk having died, his yathi may have been enshrined by the two pious ladies'. Mr. Majumdar, who reads aropayati for aropayata, refers us to the Andhau inscriptions of the Saka year 52, i. c. of about the same date, where the raising of staffs (lashţi uthāpita) by two persons is mentioned, and where the 'staffs' are evidently the long slabs of stone on which the inscriptions have been incised and which have been explained as memorial stones. He thinks that we have a reference to a relic-pillar of Nāgadatta, i. c. a pillar containing the corporeal relics of Nagadatta, referring us to the Karle inscription, No. 9,2 where we read about a pillar (thabha) with relics (sasarira), and where 'there is a hole or receptacle cut for the purpose of holding the relic mentioned in the inscription in the centre of a lotus carved on the front of the pillar just where the inscription ends'.

So far as I can see, the *yathi* was raised by Nāgadatta himself and was not a memorial raised over him. Why it was put up, I am not able to say, but it may have been in order to support the chamber above, which was evidently meant as a relic chamber.

L. 3. The first words are clear, viz. viharasvamini(in) upasika Balanaindi. Only the ba of Balanaindi is damaged. The next word was read in different ways, till Bühler 3 read it as kulubini. The first akshara is damaged. Dr. Hoernle stated that

<sup>1</sup> Ep. Ind., xvi, pp. 19 ff.

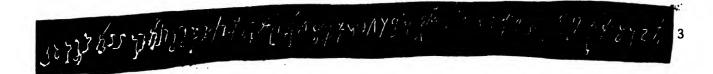
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Ep. Ind., vii, p. 55; Lüders, List, no. 1095.

<sup>3</sup> Indische Palacographie, p. 28.

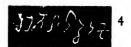
## 1. SUI VIHĀR. YEAR 11







Scale 0.40



## 2. ZEDA. YEAR 11



Scale 0-15

PHOTOGRAPH OF THE SAME



the outlines of ka are quite distinct on the plate and that he could recognize traces of a dotted line across the letter, wherefore he read ki. The latter are absolutely invisible to me, and the reading ku seems to be certain. Nor can there be much doubt that the next akshara is a cerebral ta. The upper hook is clearly visible. So far as I can see, the curve of the vertical is not an u-loop, but rather the anusvāra, and the sloping crossbar does not seem to be the short bar to the right of the vertical, which we find in the Aśoka inscriptions and the Dharmarājikā record. That bar never crosses the vertical, and its slope is downwards from the left to the right, and, besides, it is sometimes missing. I therefore think that the cross-bar is the i-stroke and read kulimbini, cf. the Dharmarājikā inscription.

The ensuing words are again clear: Balajaya mata cha imam yathipratithanam. Only the final anusvāra is somewhat indistinct.

The following syllables were read as apano cha by Bhagvānlāl and as kapajam cha by Hoernle and Majumdar. Professor Lüders has, however, pointed out to me that the first akshara is clearly tha, the third probably i, and the fourth certainly cham. He proposes to read thapaïcham, corresponding to Skr. sthāpayitvā, and to translate 'setting aside', 'besides'. This explanation seems to me to be evidently right.

The next word is anuparivaram, which cannot well mean 'accompanied by the (whole) household', as translated by Mr. Majumdar, but must be the object of the ensuing verb. Dr. Hoernle translated 'and the customary accessories'. It seems to me, however, that anuparivara must have a similar meaning as I have assigned to parivara in the Takht-i-Bāhī and Mathurā Lion Capital inscriptions and refer to the chamber raised round the relics, after the yathi had been put up. Or else anu may be explained as an adverb, 'subsequently', and parivara may mean 'enclosure'.

The next word was read as dadarim by Dowson, while Hoernle read dadatim, which he explained as a miswriting instead of dadamti. Dowson's reading is undoubtedly correct, and Professor Lüders compares the termination rim with Pāli re.

The remaining portion of the inscription does not present any difficulty.

The record is dated on the 28th Daisios of the year 11 of the Kanishka era, i.e., according to Dr. van Wijk, the 7th June, A.D. 139.

#### TEXT

- L. 1 maharajasya rajatirajasya devaputrasya Kan[i]shkasya samva[t]sare ekadase sam
  10 1 Daïsi(m)kasya masas[y]a divase(m) athavise di 10 4 4
  - 2 [aya]tra divase bhikshusya Nagadatasya dha[rma]kathisya acharya-Damatrataśishyasya acharya-Bhave(va)-praśishyasya yaṭhim aropayata iha Da[ma]ne
  - 3 viharasvamiņi(m) upasika [Ba]lanamdi [ku]ţimbini Balajaya mata cha imani yaţhipratiţhanam ţhapa[i]cham anu parivaram dadarim Sarvasatvanam
  - 4 hitasukhaya bhavatu.

#### TRANSLATION

(during the reign) of the Mahārāja Rājātirāja Devaputra Kanishka, in the eleventh year, anno 11, on the eighteenth day, d. 18., of the month Daisios, on this day, when the friar Nāgadatta, the preacher of the law, the disciple of the teacher Damatrāta, the disciple's disciple of the teacher Bhava, raised the staff here in Damana, the mistress of the Vihāra, the lay votary Balānandī, and her mother, the matron, the wife of Bala (or, Balajayā), in addition to this foundation of the staff, subsequently give the enclosure. May it be conducive to welfare and happiness for all beings.

#### LXXV. PLATE XXVI. 2: ZEDA INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 11

Zeda is a village near Uṇḍ, situated in 34° 3' N. and 72° 32' E. Here I. Loewenthal noticed 'an unshapen piece of rock lying at the entrance of the village', on which there was an inscription in Kharoshṭhī characters.¹

The stone, which is now in the Lahore Museum, as No. I. 2, is, according to Cunningham, a rough block of quartz, 4 feet long and 1 foot broad. The inscription has been edited by Cunningham, Senart, Boyer, and Konow, and some remarks on the dating and interpretation have been published by E. Thomas, Bühler, Banerji, Lüders, and Majumdar.

The stone is very rough, and damaged in some places, with the result that the reading is beset with considerable difficulty.

The inscription consists of three lines and covers a space two feet long and about 8 inches broad. The size of individual letters varies from almost 4 in. in the beginning to 1 in. to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. towards the end. M. Senart thought that ll. 1 and 2 are perhaps incomplete.

The characters are Kharoshthī of a similar kind as in the Sui Vihār plate, but there is comparatively great variation in the shape of individual letters. The u-mātrā is e.g. rounded in kshuṇami, l. 1, but angular is kue, l. 2; the kha of khade, l. 2, has the same shape as in Jauliā, but is more rounded in daṇamukha, l. 2; cha has the cursive shape which we already find on the Lion Capital; tra in kshatrapasa, l. 3, has a shape which reminds us of A 1 of the Lion Capital, but is regular in Saghamitra, l. 3; de has the same shape as in Sui Vihār; ya has the same angular shape as in Sui Vihār; the compound shka shows the verticals of both letters as one continuous line, but I see no reason for following Mr. Majumdar, who reads shpa; sa has several different forms, as will be seen from the plate. Two aksharas, viz. ja in pujaṇe, l. 2, and the final sa have been twisted in order to avoid their running into the letters standing above them.

L. 1, which contains the date, does not present any difficulty: sam 10 I ashadasa masasa di 20 utaraphagune ise kshunami. M. Senart read the day as 10, but M. Boyer is certainly right in reading 20. The e of ne in utaraphagune is written above the top as a vertical. The coupling of the date with a nakshatra has enabled Dr. van Wijk to calculate it as corresponding to the 19th June, A.D. 139.11

L. 2. The first aksharas were read as chanam uspa by Cunningham, as bhanam uka by M. Senart, as khanam uspha by M. Boyer, as khane kue by Professor Lüders, and as khade kue by myself. A comparison of the de of the Zeda and Ārā records will show that the second letter is certainly de. Khade kue corresponds to Skr. khātah kūpah.

The next word-was read as kharadasa by Cunningham, . . . chasa by M. Senart, mu . . chasa by M. Boyer, vera(or, ro)dasa by Professor Lüders, and vemadasa by Mr. Majumdar. The first akshara is evidently mu. It is placed high up, protruding above the line, and a long flaw in the stone runs into the u-curve, giving the whole the appearance of a ve. The photograph reproduced in the plate, however, clearly

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. his remarks JASB, xxxii, 1863, p. 5.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> ASI, v, 1875, pp. 57 f., with plate XVI, 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> JA, VIII, xv, 1890, pp. 135 ff., with plate.

<sup>4</sup> JA, x, iii, 1904, pp. 465 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Ep. Ind., xix, pp. 1 ff.; cf. SBAW, 1916, p. 801; Ostasiatische Zeitschrift, viii, p. 230.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> JRAS, N.S., ix, 1877, p. 9<sup>1</sup>.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> JRAS, 1894, p. 535.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, pp. 46, 72.

<sup>9</sup> SBAW, 1912, p. 826.

<sup>10</sup> List, no. 95.

<sup>11</sup> Acta Orientalia, v, pp. 168 ff.

shows that the akshara is mu. The next letter is almost certainly ro. The stone has peeled off in consequence of the engraving of the o-stroke, but the latter is clearly visible on the stone. Muroda can hardly be anything else than the Saka word murunda, master, lord, i.e. it stands for muroinda.

The next word was read as mardukasa by Cunningham, and as mardakasa by Messrs. Boyer and Lüders. The head of the second letter, however, clearly shows the forward bend which distinguishes jha from da. Marjhaka seems to be an older form of the Khotanī Saka word malysaki, i.e. malzaki, which is used in the Maitreyasamiti to render the grihapati, the sixth ratna of a chakravartin, who is characterized by the divine eye, through which he discerns hidden treasures and secures them for his master. This designation is probably meant to characterize the ruler in question as rich in treasure, a characterization which is sometimes used about the Roman emperor. The title marjhaka is here given to Kanishka. We know that the Roman power in Asia was waning during the rule of Hadrianus (A.D. 117-138), when the Parthians occupied Mesopotamia. Kanishka is further reported to have defeated the Parthians, and it is conceivable that the assumption of the title marjhaka is connected with some such events.

Then follows Kanishkasa rajami. I have already stated that I cannot accept Mr. Majumdar's reading Kanishpasa. A compound shpa does not seem to be ever used in Kharoshthī.

The ensuing passage is the most difficult part of the whole record. Cunningham read dharya dadabhasa Idamukhastrape a de asa..., M. Senart.. dadabhai da[na]mukha. [pe adhia]sa [daadaasa] ti[dha].., and M. Boyer [to]yadalabhai danamukha sapeadhia sasasushe sati vudhe.

The first word is evidently the same as we have found in the Dewai inscription. I accept M. Boyer's to, though I do not feel quite confident about the reading. The next letter is certainly ya, but the right leg is bent and continued in a curve, so that we must apparently read yam. Then follows da, and toyamda may mean 'a watergiver', i.e. some appliance for drawing water from the well or some place for serving it to visitors, as suggested above in connexion with the Dewai inscription.

The ensuing akhshara seems to me to be a distinct cha. There is an apparent cross-bar running into the next letter. The photograph, however, shows that it does not belong to the letter. Then comes bhui, and not bhai. Bhui I have explained as corresponding to Skr. bhūyah, and toyanida cha bhui as a parenthetical sentence, meaning 'and moreover a water-giver', to be connected with the preceding khade kue.

The next word is certainly danamukha, which probably stands for danamukhe.

The ensuing akshara, which was read stra by Cunningham and sa by M. Boyer, seems to me to be a distinct hi, and in the following I accept the reading peadhiasa, suggested by Messrs. Senart and Boyer. The impressions show several bars and lines in pea, but an inspection of the original has convinced me that they are due to the roughness of the stone. The ensuing dhi seems to be certain. The following a seems in the plate to rest on a line bent downwards at both ends. In the original I can only see a hook to the left, of the same kind as we find in the Māṇikiāla inscription.

It seems necessary to see in *Hipeadhiasa* the name of the donor, and it is tempting to compare Greek names such as Hippeos, Hippias.

<sup>4</sup> Cf. Lüders, JRAS, 1909, p. 650; SBAW, 1919, p. 763<sup>1</sup>.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Ed. Leumann, Strassburg, 1919, p. 67.

<sup>2</sup> Cf. Pelliot, Toung Pao, 1923, pp. 97 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Lévi, JA, IX, viii, pp. 444 ff.; Ind. Ant., xxxii, 1903, pp. 381 ff.

The ensuing akshara seems to be sa, though the bottom is damaged. What follows has not come out well in M. Senart's plate. The first letter seems to be rva and the second sti, but the stone has peeled off so that the outlines are indistinct. Then comes a certain va, a letter which can be da (cf. di of l. 1), ta or even sa; a distinct ti; a va, where I cannot see the u-mātrā read by M. Boyer; an akshara which may be dha or dhe, and a letter which looks like the initial sa of l. 3, but which may be se. I therefore think it possible to read sarvastivadativadhase, for the increase of the Sarvāstivāda, or sarvastivasativadhasa, the elder in the settlement of the Sarvāstis.

Then comes a distinct pu, followed by some strokes which Messrs. Senart and Boyer read as tra. To me they seem too short to be part of an akshara, and I take them to represent damage to the stone caused by the engraving of the u-loop of khshu in l. 1. On the other side of this u-loop stands an akshara, which has been bent forward in order to avoid its running into the u-loop. M. Boyer took it to be ba, but it seems to me that it must be ja. Then comes an akshara which M. Senart read as na, M. Boyer as npa, but which seems to me to be ne, with the same downward curve of the e-stroke as in some of the e-signs of the Māṇikiāla inscription. I therefore read pujane, Skr.  $p\bar{u}jane$ . If the lines read as tra by the French scholars really represent tra, we might think of reading putrajane.

The last aksharas of 1. 2 are certainly liaka, as read by M. Senart, and they must be taken together with the first akshara of

L. 3, which cannot, therefore, be anything else than sa.

The next word was read as kshaharasa by M. Senart and as kshalapasa by M. Boyer. The second akshara is, however, evidently the same which occurs in mahaksha[tra]vasa in A. 1 of the Mathurā Lion Capital. Only the small vertical above the head is placed more to the right. I therefore write [tra], assuming the sign to denote a modification of tra, perhaps with a fricative t. The next akshara can hardly be anything else than pa, though the head is damaged.

The kshatrapa Liaka must be different from the kshatrapa of Chukhsa Liaka Kusuluka, but may have been a descendant of his and have held sway in Chukhsa, which must then have included Zeda.

The ensuing portion was read by M. Senart as. pa..a. da. ta dana, and by M. Boyer thupa dhola unamita dana. So far as I can see, the first akshara is u, the third ka or ku, the fourth and fifth certainly cha and a. I therefore read upakachaa and explain this as the dative of upakacha, i.e. upakachcha, with the same meaning as Skr. upakāra; cf. Prākrit kachcha. The next words I cannot read otherwise than as mad[u] kata daṇa, though the u-loop of madu is indistinct. The ka of kata seems to be quite certain.

The next three aksharas were read as anuga by M. Boyer, who thought that the backward curve at the bottom of ga is due to damage of the stone, but such does not seem to be the case, wherefore I read gra. M. Boyer read the remaining portion of the record as punavardhase Saghamitrasa dana, gift of Samghamitra, in order to increase his merit. What he read as pu, however, seems to me to be he, and na could hardly represent Skr. nya. The na seems to be certain, though there is a wedge-like peeling off above the head. I, accordingly, read anugrahena.

In my edition of the record I accepted M. Boyer's vardhase. On the stone, however, I could not see the r-hook, and the supposed rdha looked more like da. It may, however, be a misshaped dha. The third letter may be se, but also a sa of the same kind as the last akshara of the inscription. The first has, finally, a distinct curve at the bottom, which may be part of an u-mātrā. Vudhasa or vadhasa might be Pāli vuddhassa, vaddhassa, of the old, of the learned.

What follows after Saghamitra can, so far as I can see, not be sa dana, but must be read as rajasa.

#### TEXT

- L. 1 Sam 10 1 Ashadasa masasa di 20 Utaraphagune ise kshunami
  - 2 khade kue [mu]r[o]dasa marjhakasa Kanishkasa rajami [toyam]da cha bhui danamukha Hipeadhiasa sa[rvasti]vadativadhase pujane Liaka-
  - 3 sa ksha[tra]pasa upa[ka]chaa mad[u] kata dana anugra[hena] v[udha]sa Saghamitrarajasa.

#### TRANSLATION

Anno 11, on the 20. d. of the month Āshāḍha, in Uttaraphalguna, at this term, a well was dug, during the reign of the Lord, the Marjhaka Kanishka, and further a watergiver, the gift of Hipea Dhia, for the increase of the Sarvāstivāda, in honouring of the kshatrapa Liaka, for the benefit of his mother. Made is the gift through the favour of the elder Samghamitrarāja.

## LXXVI. PLATE XXVII. 1: MĀŅIKIĀLA INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 18

Māṇikiāla is a village and group of ruins in the Rāwalpiṇḍī District, situated in 33° 27′ N. and 73° 17′ E., midway between Hassan Abdal and Jhelum. The remains consist of a great stūpa, south of the modern village, which was excavated by General Ventura in 1830, and fourteen smaller buildings of the same kind, fifteen monasteries, and many isolated massive stone walls.

One of the smaller stūpas was excavated by General Court in 1834.¹ He found, at ten feet from the level of the ground, a cell in the form of a parallelogram, with the four sides corresponding with the four cardinal points, and covered by a massive stone, which proved to contain a Kharoshṭhī inscription on the lower side. In the cell was found a copper urn, enclosing a silver urn, which again enclosed a gold urn, within which were found some coins, two precious stones, and four pearls.

Prinsep contributed a note on the interpretation of the inscription,<sup>2</sup> and was apparently engaged on a study of the record shortly before his final departure from India. It was published by his brother, H. T. Prinsep.<sup>3</sup>

A new plate was published in E. Thomas's edition of Prinsep's Essays,4 with a transcript of the inscription.

Prinsep had read the name of the king as Kaneshsha and the year as cxx, which he took to mean 120. Cunningham b read the king's name as Maharaja Kanishka of the Gushang tribe b and the year as 446, and stated that the inscription mentions the erection of a stupa by the Satrap Gandaphuka. Further editions have been published by

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. his note published by James Prinsep, JASB, iii, 1834, pp. 5.77 f., with plate XXXII, no. 5, reprinted in E. Thomas's edition of Prinsep's Essays on Indian Antiquities, London, 1858, vol. i, pp. 138 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> l. c., p. 563.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Note on the historical results deducible from recent discoveries in Afghanistan. London, 1844, with plate 'Arian inscription from Manikiala Tope'. Not accessible to me.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> l. c., plate IX, opp. p. 145.

<sup>5</sup> Bhilsa Topes, p. 129.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> JASB, xxiii, 1854, pp. 703 ff.; with plate xxxv, fig. 26, opp. p. 668.

Dowson,<sup>1</sup> Cunningham,<sup>2</sup> Senart,<sup>3</sup> Lüders,<sup>4</sup> and Pargiter,<sup>6</sup> and some contributions to the interpretation by Banerji,<sup>6</sup> Fleet,<sup>7</sup> Staël-Holstein,<sup>8</sup> Konow,<sup>9</sup> and Majumdar.<sup>10</sup>

The stone itself was sent by General Court to Paris, where it was deposited in the Cabinet of Medals in the Bibliothèque Nationale. It has since then been transferred to the Louvre. The stone is liable to peel off, and it has not been deemed advisable to have estampages prepared, wherefore also the new plate has been prepared from photographs, which the authorities of the Louvre have courteously placed at the disposal of the India Office.

The stone is 35 in. long and 19½ in. high, and the inscription consists of seven lines written parallel to the long sides of the stone; three lines written transversely at the left side, with the heads of the letters turned towards the central inscription, and continued along the upper edge, with the heads turned towards the heads of the uppermost line of the central portion; and, finally, of two lines, written transversely in front of the beginning of the central inscription. The size of individual letters varies from 1½ to 2 in.

The characters are boldly cut, but not well designed, and there is some difference in the shape of individual letters. Thus Lüders has recognized that the e-stroke of e sometimes takes the shape of a curved hook, of the same kind as the e-mātrā in (puja)ne in the Zeda inscription, so that the akshara has sometimes been read as spa. Dr. Hoernle and Dr. Fleet had anticipated this discovery in two instances, but not drawn the consequences of the reading. Some letters are provided with a bottom hook, which has sometimes being taken to be the anusvāra curve; cf. the sa of Kaneshkasa, the sha and na of gushana, the sa of vasa, l. 2. In sa of sadha, l. 1 of the right side, we have a bottom stroke instead, and in sa of Kartiyasa a curve. The akshara tra has different shapes in ll. 1 and 5. Ya has a broadened head. The curve of sha is separated into two curves, one on each side of the vertical. Sa occurs in various forms and is sometimes provided with a short continuation of the vertical towards the head.

Such features only show that the draftsman was not very skilled, and they are found all over the inscription. There is, so far as I can see, no reason for Mr. Pargiter's suggestion that there are three different handwritings on the stone.

Lüders has seen that 1. 2 of the central portion is the beginning of the record. It then runs on till 1. 7 and continues in 11. 1-3 on the left side. The last line there is continued in the inverted line on the top, and, further, in the top line. The two lines on the right side have been added subsequently, having been omitted through oversight when the bulk of the inscription was written. That seems at all events to be the case with the lower one. We shall see below that the case is perhaps different with the upper line. I shall number the lines in accordance with this arrangement, which only differs from that of Professor Lüders with regard to the inverted line at the top, which he took to follow after the uppermost line of the central portion.

L. 1-2, the second and third of the central portion, have been correctly read and interpreted by Professor Lüders as sam 10 4 4 etra purvae maharajasa Kaneshkasa Gushanavaśasamwardhaka Lala. The e of etra and purvae were formerly read as sp, and Mr. Pargiter read the two words as kshaθra purvaspa, but it is hardly necessary to discuss these readings after Professor Lüders' statement of the facts. There are two verticals below tra of etra, one on each side, which do not seem to form part of

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<sup>1</sup> JRAS, xx, 1863, pp. 250 ff., with plate IX.
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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> ASI, ii, 1871, pp. 161 ff., with plate LXIII.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> JA, IX, vii, 1896, pp. 1 ff., with plates.

<sup>4&#</sup>x27; JRAS, 1909, pp. 645 ff.; cf. SBAW, 1913, pp. 421 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> JRAS, 1914, pp. 641 ff.

<sup>6</sup> Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, pp. 46 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> JRAS, 1914, pp. 373 f., 1003 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> JRAS, 1914, pp. 757, 759.

<sup>9</sup> SBAW, 1916, pp. 795, 7984.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> J&PASB, xviii, 1922, p. 67; List, no. 36.

the letter. I have already mentioned the hook at the bottom of some of the letters. In the sa of Kaneshkasa it has never been taken to have any significance. The ensuing gushana was read gushāna or gushānu by Baron Staël-Holstein, who explained the form as the genitive plural of gushi, corresponding to koshano, i. e. kushānu on the coin legends of Kanishka and his successors, and Mr. Pargiter read gushano, but I agree with Dr. Fleet that 'the turn to the left at the bottom of the vertical stroke (of -na) is nothing but a slight exaggeration of the slope to the left with which the Kharoshthī n often ends, and is quite in agreement with the general sloping character of the writing of this record'. The case is evidently not different where this turn has become a hook as in (Kaneshka)sa, (gu)sha(na), (va)sa, and I cannot accept Mr. Pargiter's reading vasam.

The words etra purvae cannot well refer to the year, sam 18, but must indicate the day (tithi). It is perhaps probable that the two verticals below the tra of etra are meant to indicate that something is missing, and I follow Professor Lüders in assuming that the second line on the right side of the stone should be inserted after sam 10 4 4. This line has been read as Kartiyasa masa divase 20 by Messrs. Senart and Lüders. M. Senart took masa to be a clerical mistake for masasa, while Professor Lüders explained it as a contraction of māhasa. Mr. Pargiter read maña, 'which may be a mistake for māsasa; or it may be the nearest way or writing masāhō, the Iranian genitive of māh, a month; or the word may (as Dr. Fleet suggests) be mājha, read with the following divase'.

So far as I can see the reading majha is certain. The only question is whether the slight backward turn of the vertical, which is quite distinct in the original, should not be read as an e. At all events majhe is no doubt intended. Now jh is often written to denote a voiced s in Kharoshthī documents from Central Asia, and we have found the same to be the case in marjhaka in the Zeda inscription. Majhe therefore means māze, where we find a voiced pronunciation of intervocalic s of the same kind as e. g. in dajha, Skr. dāsa in Kharoshthī documents from Niya, so that majhe represents Skr. māse, in the month. Instead of jh we find sy in this very word in the box-lid, the Hidda and the Wardak inscriptions, where sy may likewise be meant to denote the voiced s, in which case we should become inclined to think that the Brāhmī compound ys in Khotanī Saka and in some Western Kshatrapa records has been coined in imitation of this sy.

The date is accordingly the 20th Kārttika of the year 18, i.e., according to Dr. van Wijk, the 9th October, A.D. 145.

Professor Lüders, followed by Mr. Pargiter, thought that the words maharajasa Kaneskasa cannot, standing as they do after etra purvae, be taken together with the date. An exactly corresponding arrangement is, however, found in a document from Eastern Turkestan, where we read savatšare 10 masye 3 ddhivajha 10 4 4 ij(r)a kshunami Khotana maharaya rayatiraya Hinajhasya Avij(r)idasimhasya. I cannot, therefore, accept Dr. Fleet's opinion that our inscription bears witness to a later revival of the line of Kanishka.

The word gushaṇavasasamvardhaka cannot be connected with Kaṇeshkasa but must be taken together with the following name Lala. Lala was, accordingly, a scion of the Kushāṇa race.

L. 3. The first two aksharas were read doda by M. Senart and noja by Mr. Pargiter. Professor Lüders saw that they are dada, i.e. damda, and must be connected with the ensuing aksharas to dadanayago, Skr. dandanāyakah. There is, it is true, a line protruding from the lower part of da, but it seems to be a flaw in the stone.

Then follows, as already read by Dowson, Vespasisa kshatrapasa. It is true, as

pointed out by Lüders, that the second akshara looks like the e of etra purvae, but it is still more like the spa of older records, and the exceptional shape of e in some words of our record, where it looks like spa, does not justify us in reading every akshara of a similar shape as e no more than in reading the usual e otherwise than e.

Vespasi or Vespasia, as the word is written in 1. 6, is evidently a name. We may compare Pispas(r)i on the Lion Capital and Visvāsika, Visvāsika in some Brāhmī inscriptions from Mathurā, which may be a title.

L. 4. The first word was correctly read by M. Senart as horamurta, or rather horamurto, and it has been explained by Professor Lüders 2 as a Scythian word with the same meaning as Skr. danapati. We find it in the form horamurudaga in the Brāhmī inscriptions from Mathura containing the name Visvašika, and the word muroda in the Zeda inscription favours this latter form. Horamurta is therefore either a slightly different word or else an unsuccessful attempt at writing the foreign word. The ensuing words, sa tasa apanage vihare horamurto, have been explained by Professor Lüders as a parenthetical sentence: he is his alms-lord in his own monastery, and this explanation is evidently right.3 M. Senart took apanaga to represent Skr. alpanaga, in (the Vihara of) the small Nāga, and Mr. Pargiter thought of Skr. apaņake, in the market-place. I am convinced that Lüders was right in agreeing with Dowson who saw in apanaga an old form of the modern apna, own. It cannot be objected that atman occurs as atva in the Taxila silver scroll and alma in the Ārā inscription. The latter record shows that tva can become pa in the dialect, cf. ekachaparisa, Skr. ekachatvarimsa, and, besides, Māṇikiāla is not far removed from the Saurasenī country, where ālman becomes appa. Our inscription therefore is the oldest known instance of the use of the word which has become Hindī apnā, as a possessive pronoun.

Then follows an akshara which Messrs. Senart and Pargiter read a, but which Lüders is certainly right in reading as e. The e-stroke is attached to the lower part of the vertical and then bends down and runs into the ya in the line below. Mr. Pargiter read the next three aksharas as svaṇaṇa and thus arrived at his asvaṇaṇa, Skr. asvaṇaṇā, through ringing. There cannot, however, be any doubt that Messrs. Senart and Lüders were right in reading tra ṇaṇa, and Lüders has rightly explained ṇaṇa as corresponding to Skr. naṇā.

Then follows, as already Dowson saw, Baghava Budha, which must evidently be connected with the ensuing word, which was read as thuva by M. Senart, thuva by Professor Lüders, and ñava by Mr. Pargiter. The first akshara cannot, so far as I can see, be anything else than jha. The bottom is curved, but not enough to allow us to read jhu or jhan. A word jhava is not known to me, but it must be derived from the base which occurs in Pāli jhapeti, which is used inter alia about the cremation of the Buddha's body. It must accordingly mean something produced by burning and is evidently a synonym with sarīra, dhātu, used in other records. With this explanation also the word nana becomes intelligible.

L. 6 p[r]atistavayati saha taena Vespasicna Khu[da]chie[na]. The r of pra is not certain, but probable. The na of taena seems to be certain, that of Khudachiena to be probable. The word taena was explained by M. Senart as Skr. trayena, with a triad,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. R. D. Bandyopādhyāya, J&PASB, v, 1909, pp. 242 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> SBAW, 1913, pp. 420 ff. Mr. Pargiter takes it to be a compound of the Greek ωρα, an hour, and muhūrta, corrupted to murta.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> M. Senart took horamurtasatasa as one word, Skr. horamūrtisattvasya, an incarnate image of Ahura, and Mr. Pargiter as Skr. horāmūrtāsaktasya, attached to horas, i.e. muhūrtas.

<sup>4</sup> Mr. Pargiter reads bhana va sudha.



2. MĀŅĪKIĀLA BRONZE CASKET



3. MĀŅIKIĀLA SILVER DISK



4. BOX-LID. YEAR 18. DOWSON

カネタインケロシャー・イル セイファンフンスノンイレメフィン××ラス

while Mr. Pargiter took taena to be equivalent with Skr. tena. The last word was read Khudachiena by M. Senart, Khujachiena by Professor Luders, and khudentiena by Mr. Pargiter. The second akshara is evidently the same as the da in dadanayago, and the apparent e-stroke is probably a flaw in the stone. We have already found the word Khudachia in the Peshāwar Museum inscription of the year 168, where it is evidently derived from the name of a locality. Here it must be taken to characterize Vespasia, apparently as hailing from Khudacha, or Khudachi.

We must then turn to the first line on the left side, where I accept Lüders' reading Buritena cha viharakaravhaena. The last word has been explained by Lüders; it corresponds to Skr. \*vihārakārāpakeṇa. M. Senart suggested to read viharasparafaena and to see in this a synonym of vihārasvāmin, and Mr. Pargiter saw in karavhaeṇa the Iranian karapan, karafan, 'the name applied to teachers and priests hostile to the Zoroastrian religion'.

L. 8, the second of the left-hand portion, begins samvena cha parivarena sadha. Samvena is evidently a mistake for savena or sarvena.

It will be seen that we actually have a 'triad': Veśpaśia of Khudacha, Burita, the Vihāra architect, and the whole parivāra, i. e. probably as in the Mathurā Lion Capital inscriptions, the horakaparivāra, the chapter of donators. We understand the use of the term taena, which would be less appropriate if only three persons were mentioned, Veśpaśia, Khudachia, and Burita, as has usually been assumed.

Then follows as read by Lüders etena kusalamulena budhehi cha shavachi cha. For shavachi M. Senart read spavaspahi, Mr. Pargiter spantakahi, and Mr. Majumdar athakahi. Shavachi has been explained by Professor Lüders: it corresponds to Skr. sravakaih.

I then take the inverted line at the top. Here M. Senart read sacha sada bhavatu, Mr. Pargiter sachasana bhavatu, and Dowson and Lüders sachhasana bhavatu. I agree with Mr. Majumdar that the second akshara can only be ma, and I take the hook below ma to be the anusvāra. The next word seems to be sada, which also occurs in the corresponding passage of the Wardak inscription.

As 1. 11 I then take the uppermost line of the central portion: bhratara Svarabudhisa agrapadiasae. The only doubt is about the di of the last word, which may be ti.

The last line of the record is the first line of the right-end inscription. Messrs. Senart and Pargiter read Saindhabudhilena savakarmigena, but there cannot be much doubt that Lüders was right in reading saindha Budhilena navakarmigena. Only I think that the bottom-line in sa(dha) is not the anusvāra, but the otiose line which is often met with in old records and in coin-legends. I therefore read sadha.

It is a curious coincidence that the name of the *navakarmika* has been subsequently added here as in the Patika plate. This addition is probably due to the *navakarmika* himself.

#### TEXT

- L. 1 Sam 10 4 4 (Kartiyasa majh[e] divase 20) e[tra] purvae maharajasa Kane-
  - 2 shkasa Gushanavasasamvardhaka Lala
  - 3 dadanayago Vespasisa kshatrapasa
  - 4 horamurt[o] sa tasa apanage vihare
  - 5 horamurto etra nana bhagavaBuddhajh[a]va
  - 6 p[r]atistavayati saha tae[na] Vespasiena Khudachie[na]
  - 7 Buriteņa cha viharakara[vha]eņa
  - 8 sa(m) veņa cha parivareņa sadha eteņa ku-

- L. 9 śalamulena budhehi cha sha[va]ehi [cha]
  - 10 samam sada bhavatu
  - 11 bhratara Svarabudhisa agrapa[di]asae
  - 12 sadha Budhilena navakarmigena.

#### TRANSLATION

Anno 18, on the 20. day in the month of Kārttika, on this first (tithi) during the reign of the mahārāja Kaņeshka, the general Lala, the scion of the Gushāņa race, the donation master of the kshatrapa Veśpasi—he is his donation master in his own Vihāra—establishes several relics of the Lord Buddha, together with a triad: Veśpaśia the Khudachian, Burita the Vihāra architect, and with the whole chapter. Through this root of bliss, together with the Buddhas and Śrāvakas, may it for ever be for the principal share of (my) brother Svarabuddhi. (He was also associated) with Burita, the repairing architect.

### LXXVII. PLATE XXVII. 2: MĀŅIKIĀLA BRONZE CASKET INSCRIPTION

During the excavation of the great stūpa at Māṇikiāla in 1830, General Ventura found a small chamber, one foot in breadth and depth, covered by a great stone slab. It contained a box, enclosing a cylindrical bronze casket, on the lid of which a Kharoshṭhī inscription was discovered, with letters consisting of dots punched into the surface. The casket contained a gold cylindrical box, 4 inches long by 1½ inch in diameter, 'filled with a thick brown liquid mixed with a multitude of fragments of what Mr. Ventura supposed to be broken amber'. Within the box were, further, a gold coin of Huvishka, another minute gold coin, and a plain disc of silver, inscribed with Kharoshṭhī letters.¹

The bronze casket inscription was published by Cunningham,<sup>2</sup> Dowson,<sup>3</sup> and Pargiter,<sup>4</sup> and it has been mentioned and commented on by Messrs. Senart,<sup>5</sup> Konow,<sup>6</sup> and Majumdar.<sup>7</sup>

The casket, which is now in the British Museum, is 5.3 in. high and 3.5 in. in diameter, with a pinnacle, 3.5 inches high, on the lid.

The inscription runs round the lid, the last word being incised below the preceding one, with the result that the last akshara crosses a double line running along the rim.

The first word is Kavisiakshatrapasa. Cunningham read svatisiri and later svatisiva, E. Thomas and Dowson Kavisiva, Senart Sparasiva, and Pargiter Kavosia or Kavisia, but the reading Kavisia is certain. It can hardly be anything else than Skr. Kāpisika, of Kapisā. The use of the name of a country to denote the ruler is well known in India.

The ensuing two aksharas are certainly grana, where gr probably denotes a modified, presumably fricative g. G(r) and may be an Iranian noun formed from the base han and meaning 'killing', 'fight'.

The next letters were read phuka by Cunningham, phkaka by Dowson, and kpvaka,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. James Prinsep, JASB, iii, 1834, plate XXII, opp. p. 318, and a letter from Masson, p. 331; E. Thomas's edition of Prinsep's Essays, i, pp. 96 ff., and plate VI; H. T. Prinsep, Note on the Historical Results deducible from recent discoveries in Afghanistan, London, 1844, plate XV.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JASB, XIV, i, 1845, p. 432; xxiii, 1854, p. 699, with plate XXXV, fig. 24; ASI, II, 1873, pp. 160 f., with plate LXIII, no. 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> JRAS, xx, 1863, pp. 244 ff., with plate IV, fig. 4.

<sup>4</sup> Ep. Ind., xii, pp. 299 f., with plate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> JA, VIII, xv, 1890, p. 134; IX, vii, 1896, pp. 21 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> SBAW, 1916, p. 798<sup>3</sup>; Ep. Ind., xiv, p. 287<sup>3</sup>.

<sup>7</sup> List, no. 37.

i. e. kpuaka, by Pargiter. The first akshara consists of a vha, with a rounded bar across the long upright, and an angular addition at the bottom. The cross-bar is similar to the ante-consonantic r of rma in the Kanishka casket, Kurram and Jaulia inscriptions, and the subscribed hook seems to be ya. I therefore read rvhyaka, or perhaps rather vhryaka, which would be an Iranian adjective formed from the base pri.

The remaining aksharas are unmistakable. The final o of danamukho has not come out in the photograph, but is plainly visible in Mr. Pargiter's plate.

#### TEXT

Kaviśiakshatrapasa G(r)anavhryakakshatrapaputrasa danamukho.

## TRANSLATION

Gift of the Kapiśā kshatrapa, the son of the kshatrapa G(r)anavhryaka.

## LXXVIII. PLATE XXVII. 3: MANIKIĀLA SILVER DISK INSCRIPTION

The silver disk mentioned above is likewise in the British Museum. It is 0.9 in. in diameter and carries an inscription in two lines, which has been illustrated and edited by the same scholars as the bronze casket inscription.<sup>1</sup>

The reading given by Mr. Pargiter, Gomaņasa karavakasa, is quite certain, though the last ka of the latter word is distorted. Karavaka is the same word which we have found in the form karavhaa on the Māṇikiāla stone.

TEXT

TRANSLATION

L. 1 Gomanasa

(Gift) of Gomana, the architect.

2 karavakasa.

## LXXIX. PLATE XXVII. 4: BOX-LID INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 18

Among the antiquities sent home by Mr. Masson from Afghanistan was a brass casket, which came too late to be included in the Ariana Antiqua. We do not know where it was found or what has become of it.

The lid contained a Kharoshṭhī inscription, with a date, which was discussed by Cunningham.<sup>2</sup> A reproduction was published by E. Thomas <sup>3</sup> and again by Dowson,<sup>4</sup> with remarks on the reading and interpretation of the record.

The plate gives the impression that the inscription was incised in two lines. Professor Dowson's remarks make it, however, clear that such was not the case, for he informs us of the fact that, after the date, which ends in the apparent l. 2, there is a small blank, and then the inscription goes on with the apparent beginning of l. 1.

Nor can there be any doubt that Dowson was right in making the inscription begin with the eighth akshara from the end of what looks like l. 1. We there read, as seen by Dowson, sam 10 4 4, i. e. the year is the same as on the Mānikiāla stone.

After the year Cunningham suggested to read māsa attamisiyasa vrehi 1. Dowson did not accept this, but could only propose another reading for the last aksharas, which he took to be stehi 10. He was certainly right in his correction, but in other respects Cunningham's reading was not far off the mark.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Majumdar, List, no. 38.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JASB, xxxi, 1862, p. 303.

<sup>3</sup> In James Prinsep, Essays on Indian Antiquities, i, p. 161, with plate 1x, fig. 3.

<sup>4</sup> JRAS, xx, 1863, pp. 232, 254 f., with plate IX, fig. 3; cf. Majumdar, List, Addenda (i).

The first letter looks like mu, but has evidently been a ma with a long right-hand stroke, of the same kind as in the Khalatse inscription. The second seems to be sye, with an incomplete y-loop and the e-stroke apparently joining the head. The form masye has already been mentioned in connexion with majh[e] in the Māṇikiāla inscription and seems to correspond to Skr. mase, with a voiced s.

Then follow a misdrawn a, where the head has become square; a rtha of the same kind as in the Wardak inscription, which has been distorted so as to look like a rga; further, in the apparent l. 2, three aksharas which I follow Cunningham in reading as misiya, though they are badly misdrawn. Arthamisiya seems to be the genitive or locative of Arthamisi, Greek Artemisios.

The ensuing letters must evidently be read as sastehi 10, though the i of sastehi cannot be seen in the plate. Sastehi is the instrumental plural of sasta, and is used with the meaning 'day' in the Hidda and Wardak inscriptions and in some Kharoshthī documents from Central Asia.¹ It is not an Indian word, but seems to be identical with Khotanī Saka sasta, the past participle of the base sad, to shine, to appear, which is used about the sun. It seems to be used in the same way as the Iranian base sak, which is used about the passing of time.² Sastehi 10 accordingly means 'when 10 had appeared', and the inscription is dated on the 10th Artemisios of the year 18, i.e. according to Dr. van Wijk's calculations, on the 20th April, A.D. 146.

Then follows the inscription proper, which Dowson read as Hasharesya ga(or go or gi)la(or vi)mu[na na] sarir parishkasti (or parishpasti).

I take the first words to be misread for isa (or ise) kshunammri, with the same mri for a modified, probably aspirated, mi, which we shall find in the Wardak inscription.

Then follows Gola, the akshara which I read as ma in masye, and an akshara which seems to be long enough to contain two letters, a na and a sa. The reproduction is evidently quite unreliable, and I suppose that the original had Gotamasamanasa or Gotamashamanasa or Gotamamunisa.

The next word is clearly sarira, and the last I take to be paristavida, though it looks more like parishthavida.

With every reserve I therefore read as follows:

#### TEXT

Sam 10 4 4 masye Arthamisiya sastehi 10 is[e] kshunamm(r)i Gotamashamanasa sarira paristavida.

## TRANSLATION

Anno 18, in the month Artemisios, when 10 (days) had appeared, at this term the Śramana Gotama's relic was enshrined.

# LXXX. PLATES XXVIII, XXIX: KURRAM CASKET INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 20

This inscription is incised on the four sides of a copper stūpa, with harmikā and umbrellas, belonging to Arbab Muhammed Abas Khan, younger brother of the Nawāb of Landi, near Peshāwar, to whom it was presented when his father was Tahsīldār in Kurram. We do not know where it has originally been found.

There is a hole at the right-hand corner where the third line of the inscription begins. In other respects the casket is fairly well preserved.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Konow, SBAW, 1916, p. 809; Acta Orientalia, ii, p. 124.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Gauthiot, JRAS, 1912, p. 346.

The inscription, which runs round the square base of the stupa, was brought to the notice of the late Pandit V. Natesa Aiyar in 1917 by Khan Sahib Mian Wasi Uddin,¹ and published by him, with corrections by Professor Thomas.²

When I was in Peshāwar in February, 1925, the owner kindly lent me the original, and I was even allowed to take it to Taxila, where I was able to go through my transcript with Sir John Marshall, who accepted my readings and allowed me to publish a paper on the record. The accompanying plate has been prepared from photographs supplied by Mr. Hargreaves.

The edition in the Epigraphia appeared after my paper had been finished, and I shall therefore only draw attention to such cases where I differ from Professor Thomas, whose readings are everywhere to be preferred to those of the Pandit.

The letters consist of small dots punched into the copper and are distributed over four lines on the first and last sides and three on the others. I shall mark the four sides as A, B, C, D, respectively. The arrangement of the inscription is that the individual lines are continued through all four faces. After the end of l. 3 on face D, the text runs on in l. 4 on the same face and is finished in l. 4 of A. I here differ from my predecessors, who took A 4 to precede D 4.

The characters are Kharoshṭhī of a similar kind as in the Kanishka casket inscription and other records of the same period. We may note the frequent use of a bottom-stroke, the rounded da, the peculiar mu, and the broad ya.

Intervocalic ga is written gra, and the same sign is occasionally used for old -k-; cf. bhagravatasa, sogra. What is meant is evidently a voiced guttural fricative. In prachagra, Skr. pratyaya; uvagrasa, Skr. upāyāsa, gr is written for old -y-. We have an exact parallel in the Kharoshthī manuscript of the Dhammapada, where we find e. g. raka, Skr. rāga; urako, Skr. urago; udakavaya, Skr. udayavyaya; dhoreka, Skr. dhaureya. Here k is written, in a similar way as kr on the Mathurā Lion Capital, but the sound intended is certainly the same in all these cases. I shall write g(r). In the same way we apparently have dra for intervocalic da.

There are also other peculiarities which remind us of the manuscript. Thus rs becomes sh in phasha, Skr. sparsa, D2; sk becomes k in kamdha, Skr. skandha, D3; samkara, Skr. samskāra, B 2. The ka in such words differs, it is true, from the usual ka, in so far as the vertical is prolonged above the head, so that the sound must have become modified. We have found a similar sign in the Lahore Museum inscription on the Buddha's writing-board, which contains references to events dealt with in Buddhist literature. In the Dhammapada we find kanhana, Skr. skandhanam, but saghara, Skr. samskāra. I shall write k'. In A 3 we find tasha for Skr. trishnā, with a curve above the sha. The Dhammapada has tasha. I shall again write tash'a. In this case the Dhammapada manuscript comes to our assistance. It frequently uses this same curve above letters which we must assume to have been aspirated; thus above n in ganu, Skr. gandha, Cro 3; ana, Skr. andha, Cro 4; kana, Skr. skandha, B 13. There can be no doubt that an aspirated n is intended. Similarly we find the curve above ja in jana, Skr. dhyāna, ajayado, Skr. adhyāyatah, B 16; praujadi, Skr. prabudhyante, A<sup>4</sup> 5, &c. The curve is, however, sometimes omitted; cf. jayadu, A<sup>1</sup> 3; praujadi A<sup>4</sup> 4, &c. Such writings seem to bear witness to a weakening of the aspiration.

Another peculiarity, which I cannot explain, is the apparent substitution of st for sy

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. ASIAR, 1917-18, pp. 31 ff.; ASIFC, 1917-18, p. 2; Majumdar, List, no. 26.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Ep. Ind., xviii, p. 16 ff., with reproductions of the stupa and of a photograph and an eye-copy of the inscription.

in dormanasta, Skr. daurmanasya, C 3. It seems as if we have before us a barbaric daurmanasta.

All these peculiarities, with the exception of the writing gr for intervocalic g, are found outside the proper record and in a passage which is described as a saying of the Lord, and which is, in fact, the well-known pratityasamutpāda formula. The passage looks like a quotation, and seems to have been taken from a canonical text. Now we know from the Kharoshṭhī Dhammapada that there existed canonical texts in a somewhat standardized form of the vernacular used in Kharoshṭhī inscriptions. Our record, and apparently also the writing-board epigraph mentioned above, show that the Dhammapada was not the only work of this kind.

We cannot say to which sect this Prākrit canon belonged. Our inscription mentions the Sarvāstivādins, and it seems natural to infer that the Sarvāstivādins had a Prākrit canon in the north-western language of, say Taxila, before Sanskrit was introduced, probably in connexion with Kanishka's Council.

I now turn to the inscription itself.

A 1. The beginning is damaged, but can be made out to be Sam 20 masasa. It has been subsequently changed to Sam 20 1 masa, but the figure 1 and the ma which has been engraved over the old sa have not been executed in the usual way, as punched dots, but engraved in deep-cut lines. It therefore seems probable that the correction has been made at a later time, when the beginning had become so much damaged as to be almost illegible.

Then follows Avadunakasa di 20 is[c] kshunammi. Avadunaka is the Greek Avovraios, and according to Dr. van Wijk's calculations, the 20th Audunaios of the year 20 corresponds to the 2 January, A.D. 148.

B I was read by Professor Thomas as Tsutra-Varmayasaputrasa navakainmiasa saingha. So far as I can see, however, the first akshara can only be sve and the second is identical with the dra of CD 2. It is possible that the engraver's draft had svetra, cf. the Skr. metronymic svaitreya, but we can only read svedra. I connect this svedra with the ensuing varma, and read Sved(r)avarma Yasaputra.

The ensuing akshara is not sa but ta, and we must read tanuakammi or, perhaps, tanuvakammi, ef. tanuvaa, own, in the Taxila silver scroll.

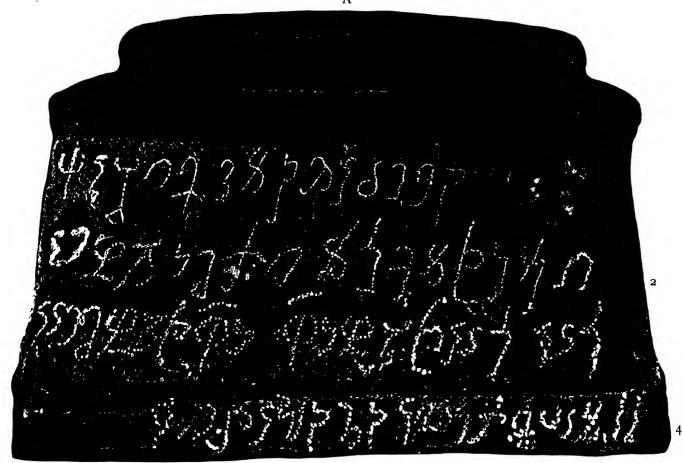
The next word was invisible in the plates which Professor Thomas had at his disposal, but is clearly *radinationii*, Skr. *aranye*, a word which we have already met with in the Jamālgarhī inscription of the year 359.

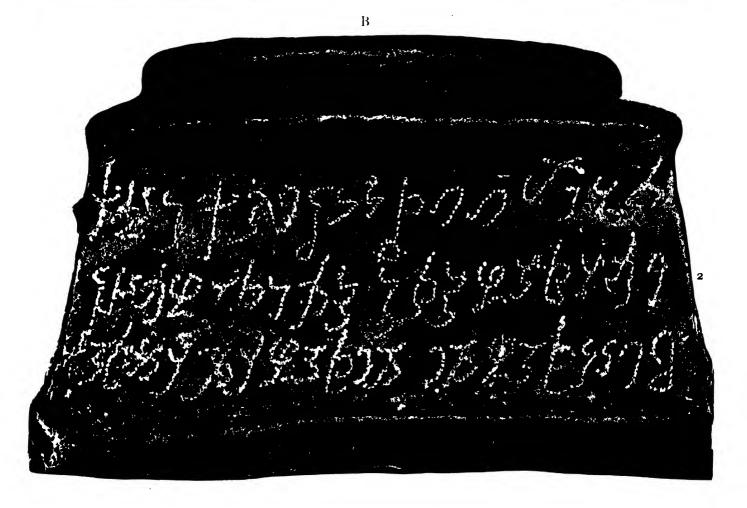
C i opens with a hole, with room enough for four letters, followed by an almost complete rain and a mi. There are traces left of the first akshara, which seems to have been na. I therefore think that we may restore navaviharaiimi. The next words were read as acharyana sarvastivadana by Professor Thomas, whose plates did not show the last two aksharas of the line, pari.

- D 1. The first aksharas are defaced but clearly visible in the original, being grahammi. Then follows thubammi bhag(r) avatasa Sakyamunisa.
- $\Lambda$  2. śarira pradithavedi yatha uta bhag(r)avada. Professor Thomas read yatha and utain, but I feel confident that my reading is correct.
- B 2-D 3 do not call for any remark after what has been said about the peculiar signs used in this part of the record. Professor Thomas read *soya* for *sogra*, and *domanavi(si)uvega sainbhavati* for *dormanastaiivagrasa evam asa*, because his materials were too defective to make it possible to see the actual reading.

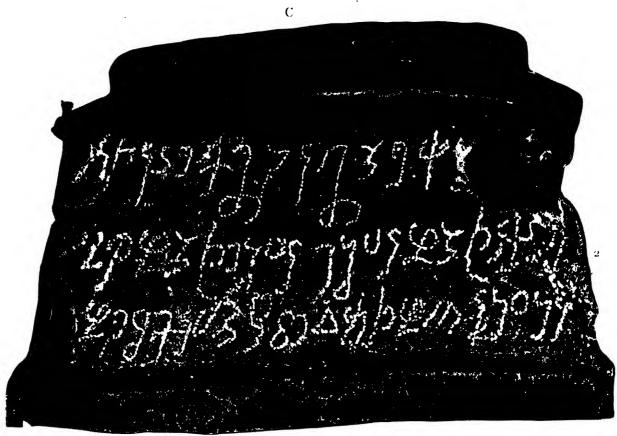
Then we must go on with D 4, as already stated, where the only doubtful akshara

A

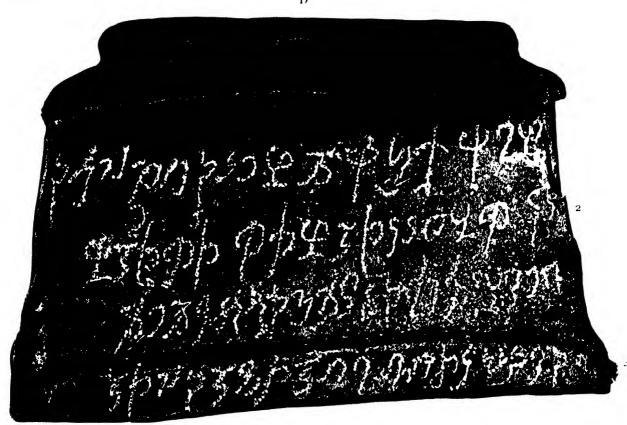












is the last one, which seems to me to be clearly te and not de. L. 4 forms the continuation of the inscription proper, which was interrupted by the quotation.

The concluding line, A 4, was illegible in Professor Thomas's plate, but is quite certain. The name *Mahiphatia* is not known from other sources.

### TEXT

- L. 1 (A). [Sam 20 masa]sa Avadunakasa di 20 is[e] kshunammi (B) Śveḍ(r)avarma Yaśaputra tanu[v]akammi ramnammi (C) [navaviha\*]rammi acharyana sarvastivadana pari(D)[graham]mi thubammi bhag(r)avatasa Śakyamunisa
- L. 2 (A). śarira pradithavedi yatha uta bhag(r)avada (B) avijaprachag(r)a samk'ara(m) samk'araprachag(r)a viñana (C) [vi]ñanaprachag(r)a namaruva namaruvaprachag(r)a shaḍ(r)a[ya](D)[dana] shaḍ(r)ayadanaprachag(r)a phasha p[h\*]ashaprachag(r)a
- L. 3 (A). vedana vedanaprachag(r)a tash'a tash'aprachag(r)a uvadana (B) uvadanaprachag(r)a bhava bhavaprachag(r)a jadi jadipracha[g(r)a] (C) jaramara[na]śog(r)aparidevadukhadormanastaüvag(r)asa (D) [evam asa] kevalasa dukhak'amdhasa sammudae bhavadi
- L. 4 (D). sarvasatvana puyae aya cha pratichasammupate (A) likhida Mahiphatiena sarvasatvana puyae.

#### TRANSLATION

Anno 20, on the 20. d. of the month Avadunaka, at this instant Śvedavarma, the son of Yaśa, establishes a relic of the Lord Śākyamuni in his own grove, in the new Vihāra, in the acceptance of the Sarvāstivāda teachers, in a stūpa. As it has been said by the Lord: in interconnexion with delusion the samskāras, with the samskāras consciousness, with consciousness name and form, with name and form the six organs, with the six organs touch, with touch sensation, with sensation thirst, with thirst grasping, with grasping life, with life birth, with birth decay, death, grief, lamentation, suffering, dejection, despair. Thus is the origin of this whole aggregate of suffering—for the honouring of all beings. And this pratītyasamutpāda has been written down by Mahiphatia for the honouring of all beings.

## LXXXI. PLATE XXX. 1: PESHĀWAR MUSEUM INSCRIPTION, No. 21

Inscription No. 21 of the Peshāwar Museum is found on a stone measuring 16 in. x 9 in. x 6 in., which was presented to the Museum by Sir Aurel Stein on the 4th July, 1916. We have no information as to the place where it has been found. Sir Aurel has kindly let me know that it was presented to him by Sir Harold Deane.

The inscribed portion measures twelve inches by five, and the average size of letters is 1 in.

There are altogether four lines of writing; of the first one, however, only a few aksharas remain.

The characters are roughly drawn and remind us of the Zeda and  $\bar{A}r\bar{a}$  inscriptions; cf. the forms of kha, de, and sa, and note the compound pt in 1. 4.

L. 1. Only some fragments of the writing remain. We have a complete ma, the lower portion of a ha, traces of two aksharas with long verticals, and the greater part of a sa. The first word must, accordingly, have been maharajasa.

Then there are remnants of a letter which seems to be va, and further what looks

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. V. Natesa Aiyar, ASIFC, 1916-17, pp. 6, 27; Majumdar, List, no. 55.

like the *u*-mātrā of an akshara. It would be possible to read the name as *Vajhushkasa*, but the existing traces are too faint to allow us to judge.

The remainder of the first line is hopeless, and the difficulty is increased through the apparent distribution over two lines. If the two or three blurred groups of strokes which seem to stand in the lower line are flaws in the stone of the same kind as what we can observe below 1. 4, it would be possible to read the end of the line as 20 4 jethasa, though the apparent 4 is a straight and not a sloping cross. We might then tentatively restore the whole line as maharajasa Vajhushkasa sambatsare 20 4 Jethasa. But the only certain word is maharajasa.

L. 2 begins with masasa followed by an akshara which looks like the di of the  $\bar{A}r\bar{a}$  inscription, though it might also be ti. Then there is an open space, with room for one or two numerical figures, which cannot be made out.

The remaining portion of the record can be read without much difficulty. L. 2 runs on ise kshunammi khanavide [kuve]. There seems to be an akshara standing below the na of khanavide, but it is evidently only a flaw in the stone. The last word of the line might be kupe, but I think that kuve is more likely.

- L. 3. The beginning is quite clear, viz. Vasudeveņa Idradevaputreņa, where the dra or Idra might also be read as tra. The last word of the line was read as Khemadeveņa by Mr. Majumdar, but I have little doubt that we must read bramaņeņa or, rather, bramhaņena, for there seems to be a curve below the ma, of the same kind as in the Dhammapada manuscript.
- L. 4. The first akshara looks more like o than sta, and the apparent continuation of the o-stroke to the right of the vertical seems to represent a peeling off of the stone. The second is bha, and I take the strokes running upwards towards the su of 1. 3 and backwards from the bottom to be flaws in the stone. Then comes ra, surmounted by a sloping line, which may also represent an unevenness in the stone itself.

The next word is clearly vastavena, and then follows danas[y]a avaptir astu, where the only doubtful point is whether we should take the backward bottom-stroke of sa in danasya as a mutilated ya-loop or read sa.

The last sentence is accordingly Sanskrit, dānasya avāptir astu, may there be obtainment (of the meritorious results) of the donation. This is the only known case where we find Sanskrit in Indian Kharoshthī inscriptions. We know from the documents found by Sir Aurel Stein in Central Asia, which can be roughly dated in the second half of the second century A.D.,¹ that Kharoshthī was then occasionally used for writing Sanskrit,² and our inscription shows that such was also the case in north-western India, apparently in the second half of the second century.

The introduction of Sanskrit was no doubt subsequent to the Kanishka Council, and we know that Sanskrit became later on the church language of the Sarvāstivādins. The use of Sanskrit in our record may be due to a belief in the greater efficacy of Sanskrit in such blessings, which are more or less of the nature of charms. Or the explanation may be found in the fact that the donor was a Brahman.

At all events the sentence is, through the use of Sanskrit, separated from the bulk of the record, and adds strength to my explanation of the final sentence in the Taxila silver scroll, nivanae hotu aya de samaparichago, as standing outside the context.

· The writing daņas[y]a for dānasya further shows that no difference was heard

<sup>1</sup> Konow, Acta Orientalia, ii, pp. 113 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. c. g. Boyer, Rapson, Senart, JA, XI, xiii, 1918, pp. 319 ff.

## 1. PESHĀWAR MUSEUM, 21



Scale 0.50

# 2. HIDDA. YEAR 28

A

B

きついたファイトコンド××3をカロタイフカフラダラ·Lia

19 x p 7/1 x w x 2 w b # 4 h 3 v > 7 x b + 4 5 x a 7 L Ib

スケナタのカレタブグリナタからよサノイクカスとよる L.20

き ・ 3 2 を N ア V 7 は 2 万 ス ス ス ス ス ス よ 1 レ ト フ ス ブ 1 ガ ハ フ 賞 ハ か L. 2 b

between a dental and a cerebral n. In the Sanskrit texts from Central Asia mentioned above, we similarly find manushyä, vartamanä, dhanani, &c.

#### TEXT

- L. 1 maha[raja]sa...
  - 2 masasa di . . . iśe kshunammi khanavide [kuve]
  - 3 Vasudeveņa Idradevaputreņa [bra]m[h]aņeņa
  - 4 Obha[ra]vastavena Danas[y]a avaptir astu.

#### TRANSLATION

Of the Mahārāja... on the.. day of the month..., at this term this well was caused to be dug by the Brahman Vāsudeva, the son of Indradeva, a resident of Obhara. May there be obtainment of (the meritorious results of) the gift.

#### LXXXII. PLATE XXX. 2: HIDDA INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 28

The small village of Hidda is situated on a line of conglomerate elevations, about five miles to the south of Jalālābād. It was there that the Chinese pilgrims found the stūpa said to contain the Lord's ushņīshā. The site was examined by Masson, who in one of the stūpas found a jar, with a Kharoshṭhī inscription, 'written with a pen, but very carelessly'.'

Some of Masson's papers have been deposited in the India Office, and among them Professor Thomas found some other copies of the Hidda inscription, with an attempt at a transliteration, and from a comparison of these materials he published a new reading of the record,<sup>2</sup> with reproductions of the old plate and of Masson's copy. The plate now published in the Corpus is simply a recast reproduction of Professor Thomas's plates, in the arrangement which he has established.

The inscription contains two lines of Kharoshthī letters. Though the hand-copies from which the plates are reproduced are rather faulty, it has proved possible for Professor Thomas to read the whole record.

The first word is sambatšarae, but the first letter looks like se- or sem. The next seems to be athavimsatihi, as read by Professor Thomas. We should expect athavimse or athavimsami, or else sambatšarehi for sambatšare.

Then follow the numerical figures 10 4 4 and evidently masye. Professor Thomas reads mase and corrects to masa. The next words are Apelae sastchi dasahi, for which Professor Thomas reads Ape(or pi)laesa stehi dasahin. The only question is, I think, whether we must not read sasthehi, for there is evidently a vertical rising from the crossbar, as sometimes in the Kharoshthī documents from Central Asia, where it has been customary, in such cases, to transliterate sth.

Then comes the figure 10, and further isa, or ise as read by Professor Thomas, kshunammi pratistapita sarira. The two copies read phraristapita and [phra]tajastapita, respectively, and it is, as already stated, uncertain whether we should read stha or sta.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. H. II. Wilson, Ariana Antiqua, 1841, pp. 60, 105 ff., 258 f., and plate opposite p. 262; Cunningham, JASB, xxxii, 1863, p. 144; Rajendralal Mitra, ibidem, pp. 152 f.; Dowson, JRAS, xx, 1863, pp. 230 f. The Hidda inscription mentioned by É. Burnouf, Introduction à l'histoire du Bouddhisme Indien, Paris, 1844, p. 348; Lassen, Indische Altertumskunde, ii, 1852, p. 1178<sup>3</sup> (2. ed. 1192<sup>8</sup>), is in reality the Bīmarān inscription, which was wrongly stated to have come from Hidda in Ariana Antiqua, p. 259.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JRAS, 1915, pp. 91 ff., with plates.

The next word was read rajavamtimi by Professor Thomas. The two copies read [ja]tamña(or pa)mi and rajatamñami, respectively. Also other copies in the India Office have a ra after the ra of sarira. I have little doubt that we must read either rajaramña[mmi]mi or simply ramña[mmi]mi, in the royal wood, or, in the wood. Cf. the Kurram casket inscription.

Then follows, as read by Professor Thomas, thubami (or, perhaps thubammi) Sanighamitrena navakarmi[e]na. I shall not make any attempt at distinguishing the cerebral and the dental n, because the two copies differ from each other.

L. 2. The beginning is certainly edena k[u]salamulena, though the u of ku is not to be seen and the sa seems to be written twice, the second time in a distorted form, and though the final na of mulena looks like e. Professor Thomas supplied a na after mule and took e to the next word, which is certainly tesha. Then I accept Professor Thomas's dharmana, but read abhibhuti for his lokika vija. He states that the different copies of these words in the India Office diverge considerably. As to the reading ti, we may compare the ti of pratistapita, l. 1, where the termination of ti has likewise been made into an apparent ja. The next word looks like yasha, which Professor Thomas takes to be a misreading for yaso. The preceding tesha makes me inclined to read yesha. Then follows dharmakhae, which I take to represent Skr. dharmakshayah, and not -kshaye. I accordingly translate: 'with suppression of those dharmas where there is a decay of dharma'.

Then I follow Professor Thomas in thinking that the next word is misread for bodhisatvasarira, though the first four aksharas are badly misdrawn.

The following words have been restored by Professor Thomas as sarvasatvana nirvanasambharae bhavatu rajasa agraprachamya. He takes the apparent prachamya to be either misread for prachamsa or to represent Skr. agrapratyāya, in which the second member had the rare sense of 'tribute', 'share'. I take the final ya to be misread for sa, and as Mr. Masson's copies immediately go on with edena, I suppose that an e has been overlooked before the e, so that we should read prachamsae or, perhaps, pratyamsae.

It will be seen that the inscription cannot be properly read. With some confidence it can, however, be restored as follows:

### Техт

- L. 1. sambatśarae athavimśatihi 20 4 4 masye Apelae sastehi daśahi 10 iś[e] kshunammi pratistapita śarira rajaramnammi thuba[m]mi Samghamitrena navakarmiena
- I. 2. edena k[u]śalamulena tesha dharmana abhibuti y[e]sha dharmakhae bodhisatvaśarira sarvasatvana nirvanasambharae bhavatu rajasa agraprachamśae.

#### TRANSLATION

In the twenty-eighth—28.—year, in the month Apellaios, when ten—10—had appeared, at this term a relic was deposited in the king's grove, in a stūpa, by the architect Samghamitra. Through this root of bliss may the Bodhisattva relic, with suppression of those dharmas where there is a decay of dharma, be for the equipment for Nirvāṇa for all beings, and for a principal share for the king.

# LXXXIII. PLATE XXXI. 1: SHAKARDARRA INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 40

Shakardarra is situated near Campbellpore in the North-West Frontier Province. In an old well at that place a Kharoshṭhī inscription was discovered and presented to the Lahore Museum by Mr. F. S. Talbot. It bears the Museum number I. 142.

The inscription has been read by Messrs. Bühler, Banerji, Konow, and Majumdar. The inscription is incised on a slab 1 ft. 6 in. high, with a polished surface measuring 1 ft. by  $9\frac{3}{4}$  in. It covers a space 10 in. long and  $7\frac{1}{2}$  in. high. The size of individual letters varies from  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. to 2 in. At the end of the record is a rough drawing of an animal facing a jar with a branch of a tree.

The characters are similar to those of the Ārā inscription, but the execution is still more rough. Two of the aksharas, viz. the ka and da of l. 3, show a sloping bottom-line, which is well known from the Aśoka inscriptions and old coins. The vertical of ka in kale, l. 2, is provided with a backwards curve, which reminds us of the curve marking long vowels in a Kharoshṭhī Sanskrit document from Eastern Turkestan. I shall therefore write kā. The akshara da is almost indistinguishable from ta in Proṭhavadasa, divasa.., l. 1, di, divasa, l. 2, droṇi, l. 3, and daṇamukho, l. 4, but has a more regular shape in khadao, l. 3.

L. I contains the beginning of the date. The o-stroke of pro has caused a slight peeling off of the stone, the result being an apparent curve. The r-stroke is not certain. It has an unusually sharp angle against the vertical and looks, on the stone itself, more like a flaw than a vowel-stroke. Finally the horizontal protrudes to the left of the vertical, and seems to join the ensuing tha, which is, in its turn, damaged, while the sa shows the prolongation of the vertical known from old records. These features will prove to be of importance for our understanding of the Rāwal inscription.

Then follows di[vasa], but the corner of the stone has been knocked off in this place, and there seems to have stood an akshara after sa. I therefore read  $divasa[mi^*]$ . We may note that the fracture is responsible for an apparent stroke above va.

L. 2 gives the continuation of the date, which is the 20th Praushthapada of the year 40, corresponding, according to Dr. van Wijk, to the 27th July, A.D. 168.

The next two words are atra divasakāle, where we may note the shape of tra and the akshara which I have already stated that I take to represent  $k\bar{a}$ .

Then follows an akshara which I follow Bühler in reading as  $\delta a$  and a mutilated letter, which he took to be ka, connecting  $\delta aka$  with the three first aksharas of l. 3, which he read as *nikame*, and explaining  $\delta akanikama$  as the old name of Shakardarra. The existing traces of the last akshara seem to me to be more in favour of la than of ka, and I shall provisionally read  $\delta ala$ .

L. 3. The first akshara, which Bühler read as ni, was taken to be an e by Banerji, while Majumdar followed Bühler. It seems to me that we have certainly to do with a dental n, but I do not think that the vowel stroke is an i, because the i of ni is elsewhere written across the lower vertical. I think that we must read no. The next aksara, ka,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Anzeiger der Kaiserlichen Akademie der Wissenschaften in Wien, xxxv, 1898, pp. 14 ff., with plate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, p. 66, with plate I.

<sup>3</sup> SBAW, 1916, p. 7951. A new edition will appear in the Ep. Ind.

<sup>4</sup> J&PASB, xviii, 1922, pp. 61 ff., with plate III; cf. List, no. 61.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> See Stein, Serindia, pl. XXIV, N. XXIV, viii, 9, reverse.

is, as already remarked, provided with a sloping bottom-stroke. It is possible that it is without significance, but I think it more probable that it is an r-stroke, continued to the left of the vertical in the same way as we have found it to be the case with the horizontal of pa in prothavada. I therefore read nokrame, corresponding to Skr. naukrama, bridge of boats. I take Śalanaukrama to be the old name of Shakardarra, characterizing it as the eastern starting-point for the crossing of the Indus, and it is of interest to note that we find Śalatura, the present Lahor, on the other side of the river.

The next word is evidently kuvo. The u is defaced and looks almost like o, but the original shows that this appearance is simply due to the careless engraving.

Then follows khadao, Skr. khātakaḥ, dug, and not, as suggested by Majumdar, kshatakah.

The remaining aksharas of the line were read as tranivajanasa by Bühler, troniva... nasa by Banerji, and tranivadrena sam... by Majumdar. The first is different from the tra in atra, but reminds us of the d in divasakāle. The projection to the left may be an o-mātrā, and I would therefore read droņi. Then comes a clear va and an akshara which seems to me to be da, with the same backward bend of the head which we often find in the Dhammapada manuscript. Below is the same sloping bottom-stroke which I read as r in nokrame. I therefore read dronivadra and take this together with the ensuing na as one word, the genitive plural of a word which seems to contain droni, and vadra. Droṇī can mean 'a canoe', but is also stated to be the name of a country, and vadra seems to be Skr. padra, a village. The dronivadras might accordingly be the Droṇī villagers, or the canoe villagers, but I prefer to leave the word untranslated.

The reading *sain* of the last akshara of the line was originally suggested by myself. It seems, however, as if Bühler was right in reading *sa*. It will be seen that the leg of the akshara is shorter than usual with *sa*, and I think that the bottom has been bent in order to avoid its running into the figures standing below.

L. 4. The first word was read as *jarani* by Bühler, who explained it as representing Skr. *jharaṇ*, a well. Majumdar read *gurace*. The first akshara runs into the letter standing above it in l. 3 and is badly drawn, but can hardly be anything else than *ha*. The second is certainly *ra*, and the third seems to be *na* or *na*. I take these aksharas together with the last one in l. 3 and read *saharaṇa*, the genitive plural of *sahara*, i. e. *sahara*, which may represent a *sahakāra* or a *sahachara*.

The last word being certainly danamukho, I read the whole as follows:

#### TEXT

- L. 1 sain 20 20 [Pro]thavadasa masasa di[vasa][mi\*]
  - 2 viśami di 20 atra divasakāle Śa[la]-
  - 3 nokrame k[u]vo khadao Dronivadrana sa-
  - 4 haraņa daņamukho.

#### TRANSLATION

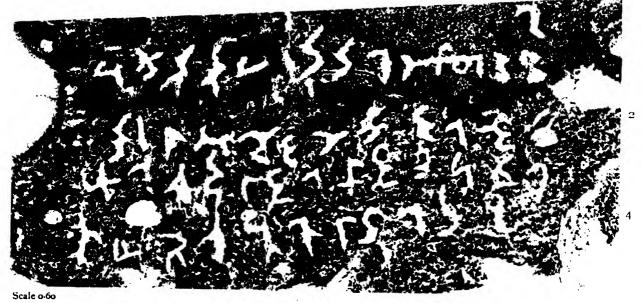
Anno 40, on the twentieth day—d. 20—of the month Praushthapada, at this day time this well was dug at the Śalā ferry as the gift of the Dronīpadra companions.

# r. SHAKARDARRA. YEAR 40



Scale 0.70

2. RĀWAL. YEAR 40



## LXXXIV. PLATE XXXI. 2: RAWAL INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 40

Rāwal is a village near Mathurā, situated on the eastern side of the Jamna. It belongs to the localities which are included in the regular progression of pilgrims and is considered to represent the place where Rādhā's mother lived.

There is a fairly high and extensive mound at Rāwal, and there the Honorary Curator of the Mathurā Museum, Pandit Radha Krishna, found a stone, 1 ft. long and about 4 in. high, bearing a Kharoshthī inscription. The stone is now in the Mathurā Museum.

The inscription consists of four lines, one on the upper surface, the other ones on the front side. The size of individual letters varies between  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. and  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in.

As will be seen from the plate, the characters have a peculiar appearance, and I should not have been able to make anything out of the inscription, if I had not recognized some groups which I remembered from the Shakardarra record. A detailed comparison further showed that the Rāwal epigraph is a clumsy copy of the latter, made by a person who did not understand the text he tried to imitate.

L. I. The initial sam is quite misdrawn, while the numerical figures 20+20 are fairly well executed. In *Prothavadasa* the copyist has not seen any r-stroke in pro, and he has reproduced the blurred o-stroke as a semicircle and taken an apparent bend of the vertical of pa to be intended. The prolongation of the horizontal has been continued into the ensuing tha, which has been too indistinct. The va and the da are fairly well copied, but the prolongation of the vertical of sa has led the copyist astray, and, on the whole, his sa's can only be recognized with the help of the original; cf. the ensuing masasa.

The edge of the stone was damaged as it is now, and the copyist has only been able to see *diva*, taking the apparent bar above the *va* as intended.

- L. 2. The four first aksharas are represented by one sign, which seems to be a clumsy imitation of sa. The ensuing 20 atra divasakāle can be recognized when we compare the original. The following sa has been misdrawn and looks like na, and the concluding akshara of the line is only of interest in so far as it makes it likely that the left limb of the supposed la was less damaged than now, when the copy was made.
- L. 3. The first akshara has been drawn as an o, with a sloping top-stroke instead of the upper curve of na. The second can still be recognized as kra, but the me has been misunderstood and looks like ra. The ensuing kuvo khada has been omitted, evidently through oversight, and in the following we can recognize odronivadrana, where the aksharas which I have read as dro and dra, respectively, have been taken to be identical. Also the ensuing sa can be made out.

Then three aksharas have been added, which have nothing to correspond to them in the original. The first is repeated in 1. 4, below the sa of 1. 3, and the last looks like an attempt at reproducing the top of the picture shown in the Shakardarra inscription.

L. 4. The first letter has been comparatively well copied, almost as an ordinary ha; the second and third ones, which look like dava, can only be understood by comparing the original.

The ensuing dana has come out fairly well. Now the copyist seems to have discovered his omission in 1. 3 and wanted to add kuvo. He has omitted the blurred u of ku, made the va into a ra, and added the o-stroke on the wrong side. Or else the two aksharas may be an attempt at reproducing mukho, with an inverted mu.

The remaining aksharas are too deformed to make it possible to find out what they are meant to render. The first has already been mentioned in connexion with 1. 3, and the rest may represent an attempt at reproducing parts of the picture of the original.

It will be seen that the Rawal stone does not contain a genuine inscription, but is simply a forgery, or rather an attempt at imitating an older original. It is impossible to say when this attempt was made, but it is probably old. On the other hand, we can infer with certainty that the stone does not originally hail from Mathurā, but has been brought from Shakardarra by some pilgrim. And it is comparatively easy to see why he did so. His intention was certainly not to deceive. He knew the Shakardarra well and its inscription, and the latter was, in his eyes, nothing more than a magic spell, which had shown its power in securing good water in the Shakardarra well. And he wanted to engage the same mystic power for the benefit of a well or some other pious establishment in Mathurā. The inscription is, in this way, of importance as throwing light on the popular conception of lithic records as a kind of magic or spell, and there cannot be any doubt that this conception goes back into a remote past.

## LXXXV. PLATE XXXII. 1: ĀRĀ INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 41

Ārā is a nala two miles from Bāgnilāb. According to information supplied by Dr. Spooner to Dr. Fleet, Bāgnilāb, 'the Chah Bagh Nilab of maps, is about ten miles south-south-west from Attock, and apparently on the south bank of the Indus, at a point where the river, having made a sharp bend about eight miles below Attock, runs to the west for some ten miles: the latitude and longitude appear to be 33° 46' and 72° 12'.'

At Ārā a stone, measuring 2 ft. 8 in. by 9 in. and bearing a Kharoshṭhī inscription, has come to light, and it was presented to the Lahore Museum by Sir Aurel Stein, and bears the Museum number I. 133.

The inscription has been edited by Messrs. Banerji, Lüders, and Konow, and contributions to the interpretation were made by Dr. Fleet.

The inscription consists of six lines, and the size of individual letters varies between  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. and  $1\frac{3}{4}$  in.

The characters are Kharoshthī of the later Kushāṇa period. We may note the kha, which is almost identical with the kha of Shakardarra, the jha of Vajheshka, l. 2; the shape of dc and ba; the prolongation of the left leg of the square ya; the separation of the i-stroke from the la in li, l. 6; the circle shape of r in rtha, and the two forms of shka in Vajheshka and Kanishka.

L. 1. The initial ma shows a bar across the right upright as in the Sui Vihār inscription. I have stated in the discussion of that record that I take the bar to mark the beginning. The first words maharajasa rajatirajasa devaputrasa are quite clear, though the last aksharas, -trasa, are damaged. Nor can there be much doubt about the concluding word of l. 1, which Mr. Banerji read as pathadharasa, but which Professor Lüders recognized as kaïsarasa, i. e. the Roman title Caesar.

Professor Luders has drawn attention to the fact that the titles used in the inscription find a kind of commentary in the ancient notion about four emperors, the 'sons

<sup>1</sup> Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, pp. 58 ff., with plate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> SBAW, 1912, pp. 824 ff., translated *Ind. Ant.*, xlii, 1913, pp. 132 ff.; cf. JRAS, 1909, p. 652. <sup>3</sup> SBAW, 1916, pp. 805 ff.; *Ep. Ind.*, xiv, pp. 130 ff., with plate; cf. JBoBrRAS, New Scries, i, pp. 1 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> JRAS, 1913, pp. 97 ff., p. 967; cf. Majumdar, List, no. 1

of heaven' of China, India, the Roman empire and the Yüe-chi, as they are styled in Chinese translations of Buddhist works. The tradition about the four 'sons of heaven' has been examined by Professor Pelliot, who shows that it was known over a large area at an early date. If it is of Indian origin, we should expect the arrangement of the four kingdoms to be India, Iran, China, and the Roman empire, and such an arrangement is clearly reflected in the titles of our inscription, where maharaja is the Indian, rajatiraja the Iranian, devaputra the Chinese, and kaïsara the Roman title.

No chronological inference can be drawn from the use of the Roman title in this record, as has sometimes been done. For the title Caesar was used by the Roman emperors down to a late date.<sup>2</sup>

L. 2. The first word was read as *Vasishpaputrasa* by Mr. Banerji, *Vajheshkaputrasa* by Professor Lüders, and Mr. Majumdar took the second akshara to be perhaps 'a conjunct with d as the second member' and read the third as *shpa*.

It will be seen that the second letter is clearly the old form of jha which we find in the Asoka inscriptions. It is also almost certain that there is an e-stroke. The third one is identical with the shka of the Zeda inscription, and though shka has a different shape in the ensuing Kanishkasa, I have no doubt that we must read shka, the more so because a compound shpa is never used in Kharoshthī records.

After Kanishkasa follows sambatsarae ekachaparisai as read by Lüders. We may note this certain instance of p, i. e. pp, for old tv. The sa of the last word, which stands at the beginning of 1. 3, is defaced but certain.

Nor can there be any doubt about the reading of the words following after the ensuing sam 20 20 I as Jethasa masasa di 20 4 I. Mr. Banerji's Chetasa is out of the question, and what he took to be va is certainly the figure 20, after which there is a short interval, occasioned by damage to the stone. The date, the 25th Jyaishtha of the year 41, has been calculated by Dr. van Wijk to correspond to the 24th April, A.D. 169.

As was recognized by Professor Lüders, the Kanishka of the Ārā inscription cannot be the founder of the Kanishka era, whose last known date is from the year 23, and who had already been succeeded by Vāsishka in the year 24. He is designated as son of Vajheshka, and there can hardly be much doubt about the identity of this Vajheshka and Vāsishka, the Kushāṇa who had succeeded Kanishka I in the year 24. This Vāsishka is further identical with Kalhaṇa's Jushka, and we have already seen that a name beginning with Va and apparently containing an u in the second syllable, i.e. perhaps Vajhushka, occurs in a defaced Kharoshṭhī inscription in the Peshāwar Museum. The writings i, e, and u point to an indefinite vowel with a timbre which could not be exactly rendered in Indian script. The writings j, jh and s, on the other hand, are as many attempts at rendering the voiced s. Cf. the forms Kusuluka, Kujula, and Kolovlo; Shoila and Soilos, &c.

We do not know anything about the length of the reign of Vajheshka-Vāsishka or of his son Kanishka II. The dates of Vāsishka range between the years 24 and 28, and for Huvishka, who was perhaps a brother of Vāsishka, we have dates ranging between 33 and 60, i. e. the reigns of Kanishka II and Huvishka overlap. As pointed out in the Historical Introduction, the most natural assumption is that Kanishka I was succeeded by Vāsishka, who is throughout in Brāhmī records designated as maharaja rājātirāja devaputra Shāhī, in the year 23 or 24, and he again, on his demise in an undefined year, by his son Kanishka II. At some time between 23 and 33 Huvishka became installed as king in the eastern provinces. He is usually styled maharāja devaputra, and the imperial title rājātirāja is only added in an inscription of the year 40, i. e. about one

<sup>1</sup> Toung Pao, 1923, pp. 97 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. JBoBrRAS, New Series, i, pp. 1 ff.

year before the date of the Ārā inscription. It would be tempting to infer that Vāsishka died about that time and that Huvishka and Kanishka II both claimed the succession. But it is just as possible that Huvishka for some time acknowledged Kanishka II as suzerain, and only extended his power to the north-west after the latter's death.

After the date follows is[e], where e is uncertain but probable; divasakshuṇami, and kha, which Professor Lüders supplied to khaṇe, but where the existing traces favour the reading khade.

L. 4. The first word was recognized by Professor Lüders as kupe, for the second he read Dashaverana, while I suggested to read Dashavhotena, cf. Scythic names such as Spargaphotas.\(^1\) I have since then been able to examine the stone itself, and I found that the apparent o-mātrā in vho seems to be a flaw, and that the ensuing letter is rather re than te. I therefore read Dashavharena, a name which is evidently Iranian. Then follows, as read by Lüders, Poshapuriaputrana, which he translated 'of the Poshapuria, i. e. Purushapurika, sons', taking putra to mean 'scion', 'one belonging to a group'. I now accept this reading, because the corresponding passage in the Taxila silver scroll also has -putrana and not -putrena. I also agree in considering Poshapuria as derived from Poshapura, Peshāwar, but I do not think that the posha of this word is Prākrit poso, Skr. purusha, but take it to correspond to Skr. paushpa, from pushpa, which in the Kharoshthī Dhammapada is represented by pusha. The form Purushapura is evidently a pandit's etymology.

Then follows matarapitarana puya, with traces of an akshara which I restore as e.

L. 5. The first akshara was read as e by Lüders, but I follow Banerji in reading a, because the e-stroke of e is added at the bottom of the vertical in the certain e in anugraharthae of the same line, where the a, moreover, has the same curved outline as our akshara, and because there are also other traces of damage to the stone in this place.

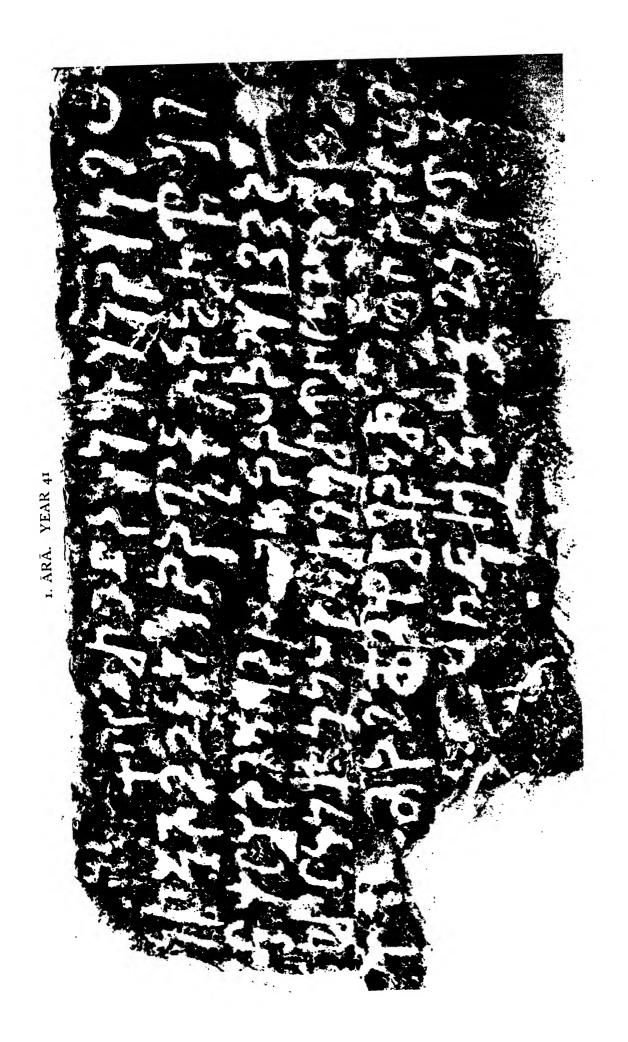
The ensuing aksharas are, as far as I can see, clearly *tmaṇasa* and not *naindasa* as read by Lüders. In face of *atvaṇo* in the silver scroll, *atvaṇasa* in a Dharmarājikā inscription, and *apanage* on the Māṇikiāla stone, *atmaṇasa* seems to be a Sanskritized form, in accordance with the increasing importance of Sanskrit in the north-west after Kanishka I.

The remaining part of the line can be read with absolute certainty, though some of the letters are defaced: sabharya[sa] saputrasa anugra[ha]rthae sarva[sapa]na. We may note the blurred ha in anugraha, where the bottom-stroke seems to be missing. After the final na of -sapana the stone is very rough, and nothing seems to have followed.

I. 6. The first aksharas were read as *jatisha* by Professor Lüders, but I think that I can see distinct traces of an *u* below the *sha*, and I read *shu*. The next akshara looks like the *ha* of *anugraha*, but is longer, and there is a distinct curve across the vertical, wherefore I read *hitae*.

After this Mr. Banerji read hima and Professor Lüders ima, but it seems to me that the stroke projecting from the ma must be the o-mātrā, and I read imo, which I take to be the neuter form imam, which we know from Māgadhī and Paiśāchī. The curious curve below i may be the anusvāra, but is probably a flaw.

Then follows cha, with a curved bottom, la and a stroke, which Professor Lüders took to be the usual stop, while I tried to explain it as the numerical symbol 1. It is, however, written so near to the preceding la that I think it must be a misplaced i-stroke. The next letter is khi, and the ensuing one looks like both the pa in posha- and the ya in puya. I take it to be ya and explain likhiya as the gerund of likh, to write.



Then follows ma, with a dot at the bottom, which seems to represent an unevenness in the stone, and a stroke within the curve, which seems to be rather an e than an i. I therefore read me.

The ensuing aksharas are badly defaced. The first might be dha, the second ma, and the third seems to be da, sa or sya. If we compare the final blessing of the Peshāwar Museum inscription no. 21, we might think of dharmasya (or danasya) acaptir astu, but it is impossible to arrive at satisfactory results. It may only be of interest to note that the result hoped for seems to have been partly connected with the engraving of the record, in which case we should have to state the same belief in the mystic power of the written aksharas which we found reflected in the Rāwal inscription.

My reading and translation are, then, as follows:

#### TEXT

- L. 1 maharajasa rajatirajasa devaputrasa [ka]i[sa]rasa
  - 2 Vajheshkaputrasa Kanishkasa sambatśarae ekachapar[i]-
  - 3 [śa]i sam 20 20 1 Jethasa masasa di 20 4 1 iś[e] divasakshuṇami kha[de]
  - 4 kupe [Da]shavharena Poshapuriaputrana matarapitarana puya[e]
  - 5 atmaṇasa sabharya[sa] saputrasa aṇugra[ha]rthae sarva[sapa]ṇa
  - 6 [ja]tish[u] [hi]tae [i]mo cha [li]khiya m[e] [dhama] ...

#### TRANSLATION

(during the reign) of the Mahārāja, Rājātirāja, Devaputra, Kaïsara Kanishka, the son of Vajheshka, in the forty-first year—anno 41, on the 25. day of the month Jyaishṭha, on this day-term this well was dug by Dashavhara, of the Peshawarian scions, in honour of his mother and father, for the benefit of himself with his wife and son, for the welfare of all beings in the (various) births. And, having written this (might there) for me . . .

# LXXXVI. PLATE XXXIII: WARDAK VASE INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 51

Wardak has become known to archaeologists as the site of some stūpas, which were partly opened under the directions of Mr. Masson, who found that some of them had already been dug into before his time. The place is situated about thirty miles to the west of Kābul.<sup>1</sup>

The name of the place is given as Khawat on maps, and Mr. Pargiter has shown that this name is already found in the inscription now under discussion, which is found on a bronze vase, 9.9 inches high and 6.6 inches broad, which was brought back by Masson and is now in the British Museum.

The inscription has been edited by Messrs. E. Thomas,<sup>2</sup> Rajendralala Mitra,<sup>3</sup> Dowson,<sup>4</sup> Pargiter,<sup>6</sup> Senart,<sup>6</sup> and Konow,<sup>7</sup> and contributions to its interpretation have

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Wilson, Ariana Antiqua, London, 1841, pp. 117 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In James Prinsep, Essays on Indian Antiquities, London, 1858, i, pp. 161 ff., with plate X.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> JASB, xxx, 1861, pp. 337 ff., with plate and remarks by Mr. Bayley on pp. 347 ff.; cf. xxxii, 1863, pp. 156 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> JRAS, xx, 1863, pp. 255 ff., with plate X; cf. JASB, xxxii, 1863, p. 428.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> JRAS, 1912, pp. 1060 ff.; *Ep. Ind.*, xi, pp. 202 ff., with plates and notes by Professor F. W. Thomas; cf. JRAS, 1914, pp. 126 ff.

<sup>6</sup> JA, XI, iv, 1914, pp. 569 ff.; cf. VIII, xv, 1890, p. 121; IX, iv. 1894, p. 5151; IX, vii, 1896, p. 10.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> SBAW, 1916, pp. 807 ff.

been published by Messrs. Cunningham, Fleet, Thomas, Lüders, Banerji, Grierson, Hultzsch, and Majumdar.

The letters consist of dots and vary in size from  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. to  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. in ll. 1-3 and  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. to  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. in l. 4. They are arranged in four lines, the three first ones encircling the shoulder of the vase, and the fourth, separated by three lines, covering about half of the broadest circumference.

The alphabet belongs to the later Kushāṇa type and presents some peculiar features. In Hashthuṇā, l. 2, there are, as first seen by M. Senart, two dots above the final ṇa, which are without any parallel in Indian Kharoshṭhī records. They are, on the other hand, found in a Sanskrit Kharoshṭhī document from Endere in Eastern Turkestan, where they are used in such cases where we should expect a visarga, e.g. manushyā pathi vartamānā, but also in jīvitā, i.e. jīvitam. Professor Rapson transliterates aḥ and, consequently in our inscription, Hashthuṇaḥ. To me it seems more probable that the sound intended is the vowel which is noted in the same way in the Brāhmī Saka texts from Eastern Turkestan and which was the regular termination in the nominative and genitive singular of Saka a-bases. I shall, however, only retain the two dots and write ā, leaving the question about the meaning of the two dots open.

The letter e usually shows the e-stroke at the bottom of the ordinary a-sign. In pad(r)iyamsae, ll. 2, 3, however, the head of the akshara is omitted. Mr. Pargiter takes this defective e to be the sign of the anusvāra, but is himself aware of the obvious objection that the anusvāra is never written as a separate sign.

Some letters are provided with an apparently otiose r-stroke. Such is commonly the case with intervocalic g, the only exceptions being Kamagulya, l. 1, which is a name, and jalayuga, yetiga, avashad(r)igana, mithyagas(r)a and agrabhaga, l. 3, where we may assume carelessness of the engraver. The r-stroke in such cases has an angular shape, while it is a curve where also Sanskrit has gr. It seems probable that the angular gr, which usually corresponds to Skr. -k-, marks a voiced guttural fricative. I shall write g(r).

In da such a r-stroke is used throughout, except in the word  $a\dot{m}dajo$ , where da is preceded by an anusvāra. I shall write d(r).

The termination ami of the locative singular is throughout written amri, and I shall transliterate am(r)i, supposing an aspirated m to be meant.

Also sa occasionally occurs as an apparent sra, viz. in  $Vagramareg(r)a\ sra$ , l. 1. M. Senart compares the apparent sra which is often used in the genitive termination asa, but also in numerous other cases, e. g. sometimes in the pronoun sa, in the Kharoshṭhī documents from Central Asia. He thinks that no special value should be attached to the apparent r-stroke. He may be right, but it is also possible that we have to do with a modification, perhaps towards a voiced z. 10

The apparent sr is sometimes used where we should expect sy; cf. Hoveshkasra, l. 2. Mareg(r)asra, l. 2, mithyagasra, l. 3. The sign which I transliterate sy in masy[s], l. 1, is distinctly more curvilinear. It is, however, not excluded that sy was also pronounced with a voiced s, for we have, as has been mentioned above under the discussion of the Māṇikiāla inscription, the orthographs sy and jh for old intervocalic s.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JASB, xxxii, 1863, pp. 146 ff.; cf. xxxiii, 1864, p. 37.

<sup>2</sup> JRAS, 1905, p. 647.

<sup>3</sup> JRAS, 1906, p. 214.

<sup>4</sup> JRAS, 1909, pp. 661, 665; SBAW, 1913, p. 418<sup>2</sup>; 19

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> JRAS, 1906, p. 214.

<sup>4</sup> JRAS, 1909, pp. 661, 665; SBAW, 1913, p. 418<sup>2</sup>; 1919, pp. 763<sup>1</sup>, 765 f.

<sup>5</sup> Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, pp. 30 f., 60, 67.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> JRAS, 1913, p. 141. <sup>7</sup> ZDMG, 73, pp. 224 ff. <sup>8</sup> J&PASB, xviii, 1922, p. 64; List, no. 93

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Ed. Boyer, Rapson, Senart, JA, XI, xii, 1918, pp. 319 ff.

<sup>10</sup> Cf. Turner, JRAS, 1927, pp. 232 f.

Some other y-compounds exist in addition to sy; cf. sakya, l. 1, arupyata and mithyaga, l. 3.

With regard to other letters I shall only mention the use of the cerebral n even where we elsewhere find na, as in natig(r)a, l. 2; the broad ya, which cannot easily be distinguished from sa, the compounds rth, rv, shth, and st.

L. 1. The reading of the date is certain, viz. sam 20 20 10 1 masy[e] Arthamisiya sastehi 10 4 1, corresponding, according to Dr. van Wijk's calculations, to the 25th April, A. D. 179. The e of masye has usually been read as a. It seems however that the backward bend of the head of sya is much more pronounced than elsewhere. The form Arthamisiya is evidently the locative or genitive of Arthamisi, adapted from Greek Artemisios. The word sasta has already been dealt with. I may only add that M. Senart proposes to connect it with Skr. samsthā, to which he assigns an elsewhere unknown meaning, ahorātra.

Then comes imena gad(r)ig(r)ena, which, as the analogy of other inscriptions shows, must mean 'at this instant' or some such thing. Professor Lüders is no doubt right in bringing gadr(i)g(r)a, i. e. older ghațika in connexion with Skr. ghațikā.

The ensuing portion runs Kamagulyapu[tr]a Vagramareg(r)a s(r)a is a Khavadam(r)i kadalayig(r)a. The tra of putra looks like dra, but we have no means for judging about the actual sound. The sentence s(r)a-kadalayig(r)a has been recognized as parenthetical by Professor Lüders, while Mr. Pargiter has given the right explanation of the last word as corresponding to Skr. kritalaya, having fixed his residence, and seen that Khavada is the name of the place, the present Khavat.

Then comes  $Vagramarig(r)aviharam(r)i\ thu[ba]mri$ , where the ba of the latter word has an extraordinary appearance, looking like sti but being less angular than the ste of sastehi. I take the state of things to have been as follows: the engraver had before himself a ba of the same shape as in the Kurram, Loriyān Tangai, and other inscriptions, with a vertical left-hand termination bent backwards and upwards and then continued downwards in a long leg. His draft seems to have been indistinct, and he has made the sloping stroke connecting the front vertical with the leg into two short unconnected strokes and by mistake continued the lower one beyond the leg vertical, the result being an apparent cross-bar. It is, however, noticeable that the part of this bar which protrudes to the right of the vertical only consists of one dot.

The last words of l. 1 are bhag(r)avada Sakyamune sarira parithaveti, where we may note the Sanskritized genitive mune.

L. 2 opens with imena kusalamulena maharaja rajatiraja Hoveshkas(r)a agrabha-g(r)ae bhavatu. The only doubtful akshara is the ho of Hoveshkas(r)a, where the o-stroke has aslight upwards bend, so that M. Senart is perhaps right in reading hu.

Then follows madapidara me puyae bhavatu bhradara me Hashthuna Mareg(r)as(r)a puyae bhavatu. The names Hashthuna and Vagra Mareg(r)a are evidently Iranian, and there are no a priori reasons for not explaining the form Hashthuna as the Saka nominative or genitive. The forms madapidara and bhradara are genitives of the singular; with regard to the former we may compare matapitaram in the Patika and matapitu in the silver scroll inscriptions.

The ensuing passage runs yo cha me bhuya natig(r)amitrasambhatig(r)ana puyae bhavatu. Mr. Pargiter originally read socha for yo cha, but has accepted my reading. Professor Thomas was inclined to take so cha as an error for so cha, Skr. tach cha, but s never becomes s. Yo is the regular neuter pronoun, corresponding to Skr. yad, and

yo bhuya represents Skr. yad bhūyah. The form natig(r)a, where we should expect natig(r)a, points to a vernacular somewhat farther to the east than the common dialect of Kharoshthī inscriptions.

The last words of 1. 2, mahiya cha Vag(r)amareg(r)as(r)a agrabhag(r)apad(r)iyamsae, are continued in the first word of 1. 3, bhavatu. Mahiya, for which Mr. Pargiter read mahisa, Skr. mahīsa, has been explained by Professor Lüders as corresponding to Skr. mahyam, Prākrit majjham, which is a common genitive in Māhārāshṭrī and Ardhamāgadhī. The gr of Vagra in this place has the angular r-stroke which seems to denote a fricative g. The name being of unknown origin, I cannot do anything more than to reproduce the written form.

1. 3. After bhavatu comes sarvasatvaņa arogadakshiņae bhavatu, where we may note the absence of the otiose r-stroke in the ga of aroga. This g is derived from gy and probably stands for gg, with a non-fricative pronunciation.

Then follows avi ya narag(r)aparyata yava bhavagra yo a[tra] amtara a[m]dajo jalayuga ya yetiga arupyata sarvina puyae bhavatu. Mr. Pargiter corrected aviya to ariya, Skr. arya, and M. Senart took aviya as one word, corresponding to Skr. avīchi. What stands in the text is, however, aviya, and I do not think that this can be anything else than Skr. api cha. We have already had two examples of cha in the record, viz. yo cha and mahiya cha. In both cases the preceding word originally ends in a consonant. In sa parivara cha and mithyagas(r)a cha, l. 3, on the other hand, a vowel In these last instances, however, cha seems to have a somewhat fuller precedes. meaning 'and also', 'and even', which may explain the retention of the initial. In the Kharoshthi Dhammapada the general rule is that cha becomes ya after vowels, but remains as cha or is softened to ja after consonants. Thus we find diva ya radi cha, Skr. diva cha ratrim cha. There are exceptions to the rule, but the rule itself is quite clear, and we have no reason for doubting that it also made itself felt in the dialect of Kharoshthī inscriptions, especially in passages which have a more or less literary turn.

For  $\mu arag(r)a$  Mr. Pargiter read  $\mu abag(r)a$ , which he explained as Skr. nripaka, king, but  $\mu arag(r)a$  is, I think, certain, and can only be Skr. naraka, hell. Paryata has been recognized by Professor Thomas as representing Skr. paryanta, and yava bhavagra, which Mr. Pargiter read as  $\delta ava$  bhavag(r)a, Skr.  $\delta r\bar{a}va$ - $bh\bar{a}vaka$ , is evidently yavad bhavagram.

The ensuing yo atra amitara was explained by Professor Thomas as yad atrantare, and this explanation is evidently essentially right. I should only prefer to explain antara as antaram: from hell to the culminating point of existence, what there is here between.

Then follows the enumeration. A[in]dajo is Skr. andaja. The o-form of the nominative is of interest, because Wardak belongs to the territory where this form ends in e. In my opinion the form, as also the na for old jna in natig(r)a and the genitive mahiya, tends to show that the monks of Wardak were immigrants from a more eastern district in India. And, as a matter of fact, the Indian population of Afghanistan does not seem to have extended as far as Wardak. In other words, the Wardak inscription was drafted by foreign immigrants and not by old settlers in the country.

The ensuing jalayuga is evidently a careless writing instead of jalayug(r)a. It means the same thing as Skr. jarāyuja, as recognized by Mr. Pargiter, but is not the identical word.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Cf. my remarks Festschrift Windisch, p. 91.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Mr. Majumdar has failed to understand my old translation of the word 'Lebendiggeboren', i.e. viviparous, taking the German word to mean 'living beings'.

For ya yetiga Mr. Pargiter read saphatiga, Skr. sashpāttrika, graminivorous; Professors Thomas and Hultzsch sasetiga and M. Senart sasvetiga, explaining this as samsvedika, corresponding to Skr. samsvedaja. But the dental s cannot become s in the dialect.

As is well known, we often find an enumeration of four kinds of beings: andaja, jarāyuja, svedaja, and udbhijja, and as two of them are clearly referred to in our passage, we might expect to find the remaining ones as well. The fourth term is, however, certainly missing, and this fact is apt to make us suspicious. Now Professor Hultzsch quotes the Vaiseshikasūtra and its commentary, according to which there are two kinds of bodies, such as are born from a yoni, and such as are not. The former are of two kinds, jarāyuja and andaja. Here there is no question of the svedajas, and the same is evidently the case in our passage: it only enumerates the yonijas.

Now it is hardly possible to distinguish s and y in our inscription, and as it does not seem possible to find a word such as sasetiga or sasvetiga, the e making it impossible to think of sasvatika, and since ya yetiga, Skr. cha yāvat (cf. Prākrit jettia) suits the context in every respect, I see no reason for abandoning my old reading and explanation. Yetiga then stands for yetig(r)a.

The next word arupyata was explained as  $ar\bar{u}py\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ , incorporeal soul, by Mr. Pargiter and Professor Hultzsch,  $ar\bar{u}py\bar{a}mta$ , including the invisible, by Professor Thomas and M. Senart, while I took it to be a verb. It now seems to me that the quotation from Childers given by M. Senart, according to which the bhavagga is the highest of the  $ar\bar{u}pa$  worlds, makes it probable that arupyata is  $ar\bar{u}pyata$ , i.e. essentially the same thing as  $ar\bar{u}pyadh\bar{a}tu$ . I therefore take the enumeration to mean: what is born from an egg (andajam) and the viviparous ones (jarayujas), as far as the formless existence.

The ensuing passage runs: mahiya cha rohaṇa sada sarviṇa avashad(r)igaṇa sa parivara cha agrabhagapad(r)iyanisae bhavatu. Mahiya cha must be explained as above. M. Senart thought that nothing could be made out of rohaṇa and suggested to read bohaṇa, Skr. bodhaṇa, instruction, teaching, though he agreed in considering rohaṇa as the more likely reading. I have formerly translated it with 'structure', and I still think that this translation is possible. It is also conceivable that the term bears reference to the preceding kusalamula and means about the same thing as l'āli kusalamūlaropaṇa. It should be borne in mind that a kusalamūla is not an act, but alobha, advesha, or amoha. The act which arises from such a base is good, and may lead to further merit, so that we understand that it may have been mentioned separately. It is, however, probably more likely that Professor Thomas is right in proposing to consider rohaṇa as the genitive plural of roha. He thinks that roha may represent Skr. rodha and mean 'opponents' (persons or things). I should be more inclined to think of roha, a shoot, sprout, here used about the donor's descendants.

The reading avashad(r)igana is due to M. Senart, who explains it as  $\bar{a}$ -pāshandikānām. The d(r) looks like tr, and that has prevented other scholars from finding the true explanation. I should, however, prefer to identify the word with apāshandikanam. Saparivara cannot be a genitive, and I see no other way of explaining it than to take it as two words beginning a new clause: and may also this surrounding structure be for the sharing of the principal lot.

The end of 1. 3, mithyagas(r)a cha agrabhaga bhavatu, is quite clear. We may note the absence of the otiose r-stroke after g. The range of persons to share in the benefit is here enlarged so as to comprise the heretics, who had just apparently been excluded.

L 4 does not present any difficulty. We may only note the irregular shape of the

forward bend of the legs of ra and cha in vihara, acharyana, which look like ram, cham, respectively. Our inscription is the only Kharoshthī record which speaks of the Mahāsāmghikas as being in charge or possession of a vihāra. I have drawn attention to some linguistic details which seem to show that they were not old settlers in Wardak, speaking the local vernacular, but immigrants from a more eastern district. We have no means of deciding whence they had come to the Wardak country.

#### TEXT

- L. 1 sam 20 20 10 1 masy[e] Arthamisiya sastehi 10 4 1 imena gad(r)ig(r)ena Kamagulyapu[tra] Vagramareg(r)a—s(r)a iśa Khavadam(r)i kadalayig(r)a—Vagramarig(r)aviharam(r)i thu[ba]m(r)i bhag(r)avada Śakyamune śarira parithaveti
- L. 2 Imeņa kuśalamuleņa maharaja rajatiraja Ho(or Hu)veshkas(r)a agrabhag(r)ae bhavatu madapidara me puyae bhavatu bhradara me Hashthunä Mareg(r)as(r)a puyae bhavatu yo cha me bhuya natig(r)amitrasambhatig(r)ana puyae bhavatu mahiya cha Vag(r)aMareg(r)as(r)a agrabhag(r)apad(r)iyamsae
- L. 3 bhavatu sarvasatvaṇa arogadakshiṇae bhavatu avi ya ṇarag(r)aparyata yava bhavagra yo atra amtara a[m]ḍajo jalayuga ya yetiga arupyata sarviṇa puyae bhavatu mahiya cha rohaṇa sada sarviṇa avashaḍ(r)igaṇa sa parivara cha agrabhagapaḍ(r)iyamsae bhavatu mithyagas(r)a cha agrabhaga bhavatu
- L. 4 esha vihara acharyana mahasamghigana parigraha.

#### TRANSLATION

Anno 51, in the month Artemisios, when 15 had appeared, at this hour the Kamagulya scion Vagramarega—he has made his abode here in Khawat—establishes the relic of the Lord Śākyamuni in the Vagramarega vihāra, in a stūpa. Through this root of bliss, may it be for the principal lot of the mahārāja rājātirāja Huvishka, may it be for the honour of my mother and father, may it be for the honour of my brother Hashthunä Marega, and may it, generally, be for the honour of my relatives, friends and associates, may it be for the sharing in the principal lot for myself, Vagramarega, may it be for the benefit of health of all beings. And moreover, let it be for the honour of all, what there is here between, from hell up to the culminating point of existence: egg-born and the viviparous ones, as far as the formless existence, and for my descendants, always for all who are not heretics; and may also the surrounding structure be for the sharing of the principal lot, and may there also be a principal lot for the man of false belief. This vihāra is the acceptance of the Mahāsāmighika teachers.

#### LXXXVII. PLATE XXXII. 2: UND INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 61

Und or Ohind is a village 15 miles above Attock, on the west bank of the Indus, in 34° 2′ N. and 72° 27′ E. An inscribed stone was found there by Cunningham in the year 1848 and deposited in the Lahore Residency, where it had already disappeared in 1853.

The inscription has been reproduced and published by Cunningham,<sup>1</sup> and explanatory remarks have been made by Messrs. Dowson,<sup>2</sup> Senart,<sup>3</sup> Lüders,<sup>4</sup> Banerji,<sup>5</sup> Konow,<sup>6</sup> and van Wijk.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JASB, xxiii, 1854, p. 705, with plate, no. 5, reproduced in E. Thomas's edition of Prinsep's Essays, i, p. 164, with plate X, fig. 2; JASB, xxxii, 1863, p. 145; ASI, v, 1875, p. 58, with plate XVI, no. 2.

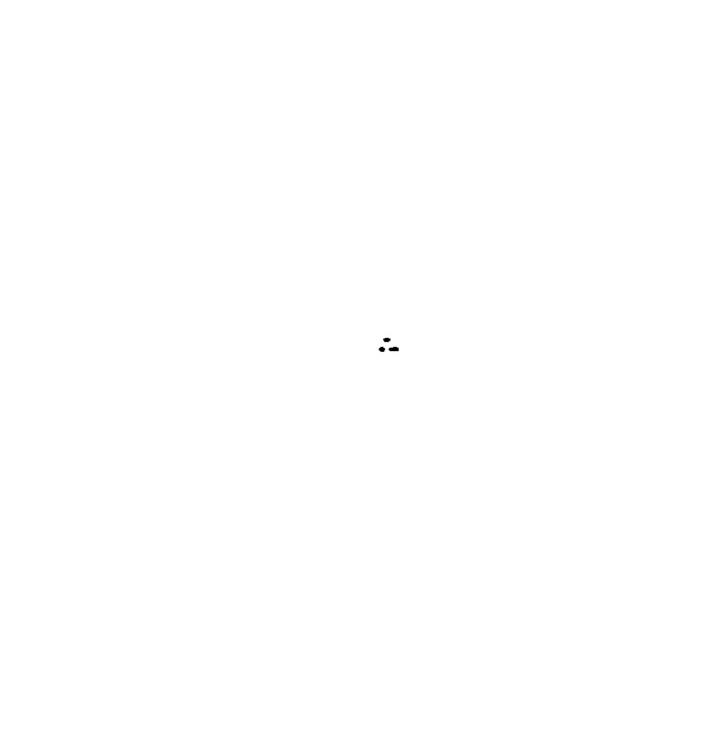
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> JRAS, xx, 1863, pp. 233 and 265, with plate x, fig. 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> JA, VIII, xv, 1890, pp. 130<sup>1</sup>, 138. 
<sup>4</sup> JRAS, 1909, pp. 665 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Ind. Ant., xxxvii, 1908, pp. 46.
<sup>6</sup> Ep. Ind., xiv, p. 137; Acta Orientalia, iii, pp. 77 ff.

Acta Orientalia, iii, pp. 83 ff.; cf. Majumdar, List, no. 92.





The stone is stated to have been  $26\frac{1}{2}$  inches in length and carried two lines of writing, the first of which seems to have been incomplete.

It opens with the date sam 20 20 1 Chetrasa mahasa divase athami di 4 4 isa kshunami, as read by M. Senart, who is probably right in assuming that mahasa is a mistake for masasa.

Then follows in the old plate sakharana and in the second savirana [kha]. It seems probable that savirana or sakharana is the genitive plural of the designation of some association, and that kha should be filled up as khade kue.

L. 2 consists of four aksharas, the three last of which were read as *cshede* by Cunningham and *ashade* by M. Senart. I have little doubt that the whole is meant for *purvashade*, and this mention of the nakshatra has enabled Dr. van Wijk to identify the date with the 26th February, A.D. 189.

#### Техт

- L. 1 sam 20 20 20 1 Chetrasa maha(sa)sa divase athami di 4 4 isa kshunami sa[vi]rana kha...
  - 2 purvashade.

#### TRANSLATION

Anno 61, on the eighth day, d. 8., of the month Chaitra, at this term (was dug the well) of the Saviras, in Pūrvāshāḍha.

# LXXXVIII. PLATE XXXIV. 1: MAMĀNE PHERĪ PEDESTAL INSCRIPTION OF THE YEAR 89.

Mamāne Dherī is a small hamlet of about ten houses, built on the top of a small ancient mound in the Chārsadda Tahsīl of the Peshāwar District. The mound is stated to have been largely cut about for manure by the villagers during the last forty years, and various pieces of Gandhāra sculptures are said to have been found there, having subsequently been smashed by the villagers or disposed of by them as curios to those interested in them.

On the 26th June 1928 the Peshāwar Museum acquired a sculpture from Mamāne Dherī, which proved to contain a Kharoshṭhī inscription. The sculpture is 30 inches high and 29½ inches wide at the base, and, according to Mr. Dilawar Khan, the Curator of the Museum, it represents the visit of Indra to the Buddha in the Indraśaila Cave. To judge from a photograph it is similar to M. Foucher's Fig. 246.

On the pedestal, which is  $29\frac{1}{2}$  inches long and  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inches wide, there is a Kharoshthi inscription, 28 inches long. There is a defaced portion in the middle, where about eight aksharas have disappeared. In other respects the inscription is in a good state of preservation. It now bears the number 51 in the Peshāwar collection.

The size of individual letters varies between  $\frac{1}{2}$  and 1 inch. Their general character is of the same kind as in other records from the neighbourhood. We may note the forward curvature of most aksharas; the downward curve of the mātrā of the final e; the cursive s(r)a of Margasisas(r)a, and especially the curious shape of ante-consonantic r, which reminds us of the usual symbol for 20 and of the akshara a.

The inscription is dated, on the fifth day of Mārgaśira, the year 89. The palaeography of the record makes it impossible to refer this date to the older Saka era. It must belong to the Kanishka era, and Dr. van Wijk has been good enough to calculate it as corresponding to the 1st November, A. D. 216.

This date is of interest in a double respect. In the first place it shows that the Kanishka era was used, side by side with the older reckoning, in the Chārsadda District. In the second it enables us to date a Gandhāra relief with comparative certainty in the third century A. D., and this fact strengthens the probability of the epoch proposed for the older Saka era, less than twenty years intervening between the Mamāne Dherī and Loriyān Tangai pedestals.

With regard to orthography and phonology we may note that the dental n is used throughout, with the exception of the word samanuyayana; thus niryaïde, kshunami, Dharmapriena. In upajaya, Skr. upadhyāya, intervocalic jh, i. e. jjh, has apparently been deaspirated. The disappearance of intervocalic t in niryaïde, Skr. niryatitaḥ, has its parallels in prețhavetiye in the Taxila gold-plate, prețhavide in the Jamālgaṛhī inscription of the year 359, and can perhaps be explained as a kind of dissimilation. In Margasirasra we have the same genitive termination asra, i. e. perhaps aza, which we have found in Wardak and which also occurs in Tor Dherai. In other genitives we have the usual termination asa; thus upajayasa Budhapriasa.

The inscription opens with the date: sam 20 20 20 4 4 1 Ma[rga]sirasra masi 4 1. The last akshara in masi is defaced, but apparently certain. Masi is probably merely a slip instead of mase.

Then follows ise kshunami, with a curious loop above the head-curve of ksha, which can hardly be anything else than a slip of the engraver's tool, and further niryaïde ime deyadhar[me] Dharmapriena shama[nena], where attention may be drawn to the different positions of the e-stroke in niryaïde and deya-, to the shape of the r-stroke in -dharma and dharma-, and to the irregular shape of the compound rm in the former word.

In the defaced portion which follows it is not possible to trace any lettering in the beginning. The last three aksharas may be puyae, perhaps preceded by sa.

After the gap comes an almost clear *upajayasa*, where the left stroke of *ya* is broken, so that it is possible to read *upajaasa*. There can hardly be any doubt that the word represents Skr. *upadhyayasya*.

The final portion I read *Dharmapriasa puyae samanuyayana arogadakshinae*, where I explain *samanuyaya* as representing Skr. *samanuyayin*, a fellow disciple. The cerebral n in this word points to a weakening of the difference between intervocalic n and n.

#### TEXT

Sam 20 20 20 4 4 1 Ma[rgaśi]ras(r)a masi 4 1 iśe kshunami niryaïde ime deyadhar[me] Dharmapriena shamanena . . . [puyae] upajayasa Budhapriasa puyae samanuyayaṇa arogadakshinae.

#### TRANSLATION

Anno 85, in the month of Mārgaśiras, the 5. (day), at this term was bestowed this religious gift by the śramana Dharmapriya, in honour of . . ., in honour of his teacher Buddhapriya, for the bestowal of health on his fellow disciples.

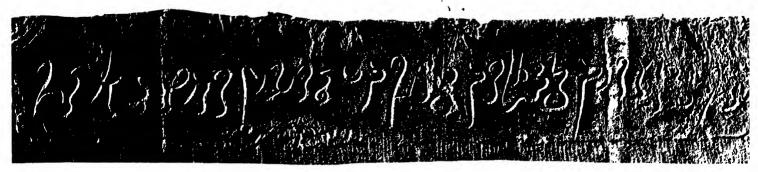
#### LXXXIX. PLATE XXXIV. 2: KĀNIZA DHERĪ INSCRIPTION

Kāniza Dheri is an ancient mound near the village Umarzai in the Chārsadda Tahsīl of the Peshāwar District. While the mound was dug for manure by the villagers, a small fragment of stone, measuring 7½ inches by 6 inches, came to light and was purchased for the Peshāwar Museum on the 18 June, 1928.

1. MAMÂNE PHERĪ. YEAR 89







Scale 0.9

MAMANE DHERT IMAGE







# KĀNIZA PHERĪ, TAJA, MOHENJO DARO, AND TOR PHERAI 173

The fragment is inscribed with seven Kharoshthī signs, 1 to 1\frac{1}{4} inches high, and it bears the number 50 in the collection of inscriptions in the Museum.

The characters are of about the same date as in the preceding inscription, and the reading is absolutely certain: masasa di 20 4 I, i.e. we have before us the last portion of a date.

TEXT

masasa di 2041.

TRANSLATION

The 25. day of the month . . .

#### XC. TAJA INSCRIPTION

A Kharoshṭhī inscription is reported to exist at Taja in the Peshāwar District,¹ but the place is said to be inaccessible and I have not received any estampages or photographs.

#### XCI. MOHENJO DARO FRAGMENTS

At Mohenjo Daro in the Lārkāna District of Sindh extensive excavations have been carried on since 1921–1922. The latest remains date back to the Kushāṇa period, and in these strata were found some glazed fragments of pottery with Kharoshṭhī letters, which are now in the Indian Museum, Calcutta. There are altogether three fragments, numbered B 15, D 29, and B 30, respectively. On the first we can read bramha, on the second tha, and on the third mano. The characters seem to belong to the time of or after Kanishka.

#### XCII. PLATE XXXV: TOR DHERAI INSCRIBED POTSHERDS

During the winter 1926-7 Sir Aurel Stein excavated a ruined Buddhist site at Tor Dherai, near Dabar-Koṭ and seven miles S.E. of Duki Tahsīl, in the Thal valley, District Loralai, Baluchistan. He there discovered about fifty pottery fragments with inked lettering, five in Brāhmī and the remainder in Kharoshṭhī.

The Loralai District some time formed the easternmost dependency of the province of Kandahār. The Buddhist settlements excavated by Sir Aurel, however, evidently bear witness to an extension of the Indian empire of the Kushāṇas towards the west, other stages being the settlements at Sui Vihār and Mohenjo Daro.

The Brāhmī fragments do not allow us to form an opinion about the contents of the inscriptions. They present so much difference that they cannot all belong to one and the same record. I have consulted Professor Lüders, who states that one fragment seems to belong to the Gupta period, while the others make an older impression. The only test letter which they contain is the akshara ma, which has a shape intermediary between those of the Kushāṇa and Gupta periods, though it is also used, in addition to the usual Kushāṇa ma, in a Brāhmī record of the reign of Huvishka.<sup>2</sup>

One of the fragments contains the words  $[v]i[h\bar{a}]rasv\bar{a}misya\ M\bar{i}ra$ , another [sa]r[vva]satvāna hita, a third  $[ch\bar{a}tu]rdise\ [a]$ -.

The Kharoshthī fragments likewise belong to different jars and inscriptions. It is, however, possible to piece them together to one connected legend, which seems to have

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Aiyar, ASIFC, 1915-16, p. 36; Majumdar, List, Addenda, no. iii.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Lüders, List, no. 38.

been repeated on several jars, only with slight variation in the wording and with a somewhat shortened text on some of them.

The characters remind us of those of the Wardak inscription, the Kharoshthī Dhammapada, and the Niya documents, and may roughly be dated about or after 200 A.D.

There is, however, considerable variety in the shape of individual letters. Thus de has the curvilinear shape with the e-stroke sloping upwards from the middle in no. 5, while the e-stroke has a downward slope in no. 3, and a cursive form, with the top bent backwards and the e-mātrā at the bottom in no. 4. Dha has the usual form of later inscriptions in no. 34, where it is an initial, and in no. 6, where it is used between vowels. In nos. 4 and 8 intervocalic dha is provided with a bottom-loop, so that it looks like dhya, a form which is also found in the Kharoshṭhī Dhammapada. Ya has the old angular shape in nos. 2-4, 7, 22-4, while in nos. 1, 25, 26, 35 the left leg is bent in a broad angle. The o-stroke is added to the right leg in no. 2, to the left in nos. 3, 22-4, and in the middle in nos. 1 and 26. Yam has the usual angular shape with the anusvāra at the bottom in no. 4, where it once stands for ya, while in no. 8 the right leg is curved forwards at the top and the left one rises above the point of jointure as in the Ārā inscription. In no. 33 the akshara is so cursive that we must perhaps read am. All these varying forms are also found in the Kharoshṭhī Dhammapada.

There are several compound letters: tya in no. 30; an apparent dhya in nos. 4, 8; rya in nos. 11, 17; sya in nos. 3, 11, 14, 34; gra in nos. 19, [30,] 33; tra in no. 31; pra in nos. 4, [31,] 33; sra in nos. 2, 4, 32; tva in no. 33; sva in no. 3; [r]gha in no. 35; rda in no. 10; rma in no. 4, [6, 8], 34; rya in nos. 11, [17]; rva in nos. 14-17, and sta in nos. 14, 16, 17, everywhere with the upwards continuation of the horizontal which has been taken to mark the aspiration of the t of sta in the Niya documents.

Of orthographical peculiarities we may note, in addition to the varying shape of certain letters mentioned above, the use of na both for na and na, e.g. in acharyanam sarvastivadinam; the occasional writing of yam for ya in deyamdhyarmo no. 4, of sa for sam in no. 28, of sya for sa in nos. 11, 14, and of sra for sa in no. 32. In the genitive termination of vocalic bases we find sya in nos. 3, 34, and sra in nos. 2, 4. Similar doublets are also found in Wardak and the Niya documents and perhaps point to a voiced s.

The language is strongly Sanskritized. Thus we find  $deya(\dot{n})dh(y)armo$  yam, parityagato,  $[ma^*]tapitrinam$ . Some features, however, seem to show that the writers spoke the North-western Prākrit of other Kharoshṭhī inscriptions. Compare the confusion between na and na; the sya-termination of the genitive of i-bases; the termination sra side by side with sya; the use of the plural in  $[ma^*]tapitrinam$ ; the o before voiceless sounds and a in ito cha, parityagato agre,  $[pratiyam^*]so$  sarva, and ta for Skr. tma in taniya, if this stands for atmaniya. It will be seen that the nominative singular of a-bases ends in o as in eastern Kharoshṭhī inscriptions. To judge from the state of things in modern Sindhī, such was the case in Sindh, and it is probable that the Buddhist settlers had come to Loralai from Sindh in connexion with an expansion of the Kushāṇa dominion, as suggested above.

The restoration of the legend contained in these fragments is naturally hypothetical. The beginning is apparently found in nos. 1-4, which run shahi Yola . . . , Yola-Mirasra viharasva, Yola-Mirasya viharasvamisya deya . . . , and [sra] deyamdhyarmo yam prapa sam, respectively. We may restore this as follows: shahi Yola-Mirasya (or, -sra) viharasvamisya (or, -sra) deya(m)dh(y)armo yam prapa sam . . . . , cf. no. 5 de[ya], no. 6 dha. m., no. 7 ya, no. 8 dha. mo yam.

We accordingly hear about the dedication of a *prapa* by a certain *Yola Mira*, who bears the title *shahi*. *Prapa* is evidently Skr. *prapā*, a place or hall for providing water, and nothing could apparently be more appropriate in such an arid country. The fragments accordingly seem to be of water jars or drinking cups in the *prapā*.

The name Yola-Mira is not known to us. The Brāhmī fragment mentioned above shows that we must read Mīra, and this name is evidently the same which we find in Mira Boyana in the Takht-i-Bāhī inscription. Yola reminds me of Ye-u-la, the son of Kustana, the first king of Khotan according to Tibetan sources.¹ If this is not a mere coincidence, we should be inclined to infer that Yola Mīra's family hailed from the Khotan country and belonged to the little Yüe-chï. The name Yolamona, which seems to occur on a Taxila seal,² may also be compared.

The title shahi was used by the old Sakas who founded an empire in the Indus country some time before the beginning of the Vikrama era. It was revived by Kanishka, who, however, used the Khotanī Saka form shao, i.e. shau, in his coin-legends, after his conquest of Eastern India. It is met with for the first time in Kanishka's Brāhmī inscription of the year 7, and it is used in the Brāhmī inscriptions of his successors. Though it is possible that the form shahi was never discontinued in the old Saka province on the Indus, it is a priori likely that its use by Yola Mira points to a date after Kanishka. And the strong Sanskritization of the inscriptions points in the same direction. We find, it is true, a marked Sanskritization in the Sui Vihār inscription of the year 11, but the Tor Pherai record is much more Sanskritic. Now we learn from the Kurram record of the year 20 that the Prākrit Canon was then still in use, and it is only in the Peshāwar inscription no. 21, which seems to belong to the time of Vāsishka, that we for the first time find a Sanskrit sentence in a Kharoshthi inscription. It therefore seems probable that we have to do with an expansion of Kushāņa power under Kanishka or one of his successors, and the palaeography of our inscriptions makes me inclined to think that Yola Mīra was a contemporary of Vāsudeva or even somewhat later. His title shāhi shows that he was not a private person but a local governor or chief, probably under Kushāṇa suzerainty. It is of some interest that he is not styled kshatrapa as the governor Liaka of the Zeda inscription. It is possible that the title kshatrapa was never introduced in Loralai.

I have already drawn attention to the different writing of the genitive termination, sya and sra. In the Grammatical Introduction I have dealt with these writings and accepted a suggestion of Professor Turner that they may perhaps be intended to denote a voiced s. I shall write s(y)a, s(r)a, respectively.

The final akshara of no. 4 is sam, which can be filled up by means of nos. 9-21 as sample chaturdise acharyanam sarvastivadinam pratigrahe. We shall see later on that another version of the legend seems to insert a passage between the words prapa and sample.

No. 9 shows traces of three aksharas which can be restored as [ghe cha]tu; no. 10 has .e[cha]tu]rdi[s]e; no. 11 apparently [rti acha]ryanam sya; no. 12 acha; no. 13 cha; no. 14 [sya]rvastivadinam prati; no. 15 rva; no. 16 rvastiva; no. 17 [ryanam] sarvastivadinam; no. 18 [di]; no. 19 [dina]m pratigra; no. 20 [prati]; and no. 21 [pratigra].

There can hardly be any doubt about the restoration. The apparent rti of no. 11 may stand for  $rdi[se^*]$ , and the initial sya of nos. 11 and 14 apparently stands for sa. In a similar way initial sa is occasionally written sra in the Niya documents, as mentioned in the Grammatical Introduction.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. Professor Thomas in Stein's Ancient Khotan, pp. 581 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Above, p. 101.

I have mentioned above that another version, which may, however, belong to jars declicated by different persons, seems to insert some words between prapa and sanighe. This must be inferred from nos. 22-8. For in no. 22 we find after pa, i.e. prapa, the words Yola-Mira-shahi-vihar., where the ha of vihar. is added below the line. No. 23 has [pa Yo]la-mira-sha[hi]. No. 24 begins with the head of a sa, followed by ka with traces of an i-mātrā, and ya-Yo[la-Mi], which I would restore as svakiya-Yola-Mira-shahi-vihare. No. 25 has taniya or perhaps taniy[u]. With every reserve I restore this as ataniya, Skr. ātmanīya, and take this as a variant of svakiya. Skr. ātman occurs as atva- in some Taxila records and atma- in the Ārā inscription. In a Sirkap seal legend, however, we find ata-.

No. 26 has [Y]ola-Mira, and no. 27 vihare. In no. 28 we have ha, followed by a defaced space, and then saghe. Though there seems to be room for more than one akshara between ha and sa, i.e. sam, I think we may restore vihare sa[m\*] ghe chaturdise acharyanam sarvastivadinam pratigrahe.

The remaining fragments should probably be inserted after pratigrahe. No. 29 has he ito cha [sra], and no. 30 rityagato a[gre], i.e. pratigrahe ito cha sra. parityagato agre. The doubtful sra in no. 29 may perhaps stand for s(r)ama, Skr. samyak.

The continuation of the legend seems to follow in nos. 31-3. No. 31 has traces of a ta, followed by pitrinam and remnants of an akshara which may be pa or pra. I restore this as matapitrinam pratiyamso or pratiamso. The form-pitrinam is evidently meant to render Skr. pitrīnam. No. 32 runs so[sarvasra], where only the bottom of the three last aksharas is preserved. The beginning of no. 33 is defaced. Then follows sarvasatvanam agre pratiyamso, where, however, the second akshara from the end may stand for am. I therefore restore pratiyamso, or pratiamso sarvasatvanam agre pratiyamso, or pratiamso, taking the sra of sarvasra in no. 33 to be of the same kind as the sra which sometimes occurs in the beginning of the word satva in the Niya documents.

No. 34 seems to run [śo] dharmapati[sya] and no. 35 has traces of what may be the ya-loop, followed by cha di[r]ghayu. There are some blurred lines below these aksharas, but they seem to be mere blottings. With every reserve I restore pratiyamso, or pratiamso, dharmapatisya cha dirghayuta bhavatu, taking dharmapati to be a designation of Yola Mīra himself. One of the Brāhmī fragments seems to contain the word bhavatu, with a dash above tu, which apparently marks the end of the record.

If we write such letters as seem to indicate a modification of the preceding sound within parentheses and the passage which is not found in all the inscriptions within brackets, we accordingly arrive at the following reading and interpretation:

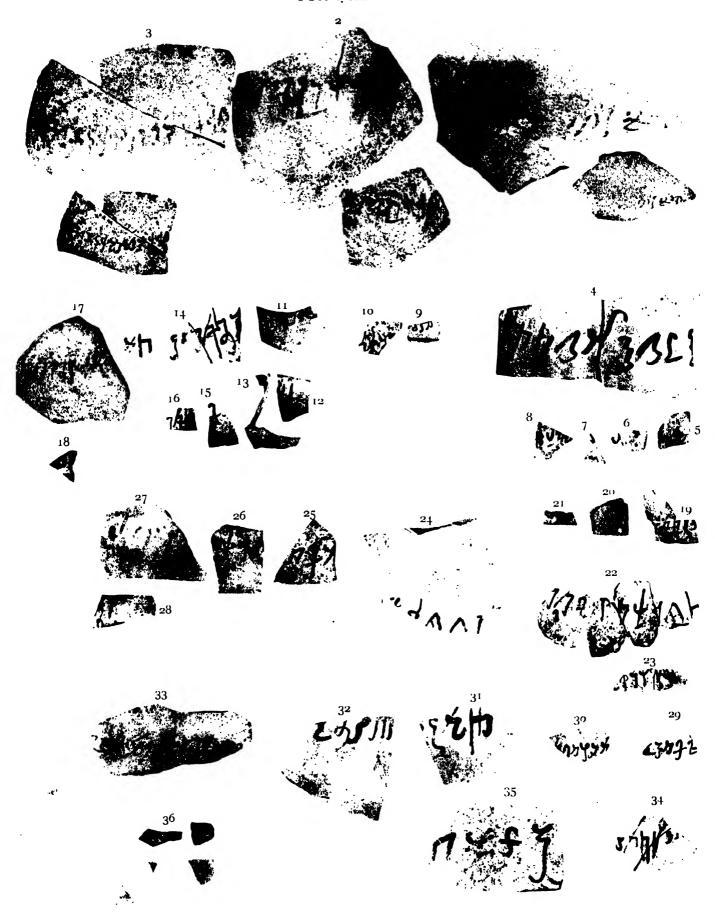
#### Техт

Shahi-Yola-Miras(y)a (or, -s(r)a) viharasvamis(y)a (or, -s(r)a) deyadharmo (or, deyamdh(y)armo) yam prapa [svakiya (or, [a\*]taniya)-Yola-Mira-shahi-vihare] sam(or, sa)ghe chaturdise acharyanam sa(or, s(y)a)rvastivadinam pratigrahe. Ito cha s(r)amaparityagato agre [ma\*]tapitrinam [pratiyam\*]so sarvasa(or, s(r)a)tvanam agre pratiyamso (or, pratiamso) dharmapatis(y)a cha dirghayu[ta bhavatu\*].

#### TRANSLATION

Of the Shāhi Yola Mīra, the master of the vihāra, this water hall (is) the religious gift, in his own Yola-Mīra-shāhi-Vihāra, to the order of the four quarters, in the acceptance of the Sarvāstivādin teachers. And from this right donation may there be in future a share for (his) mother and father, in future a share for all beings and long life for the master of the law.

# TOR DHERAI



# D. INSCRIPTIONS OUTSIDE THE KHAROSHTHI AREA

Some few Kharoshṭhī inscriptions have been found in localities where we have no reason for assuming that Kharoshṭhī was ever in common use. Those recovered at Mathurā have been dealt with above, because they can be referred to the rule of the Sakas in that place or to other datable records. There remain some few records of which it is more difficult to judge, and I therefore publish them in this place, in a roughly geographical arrangement.

# XCIII. PLATE XXXVI. 1: KUMRAHĀR TERRA COTTA PLAQUE INSCRIPTION

During the excavations at the terrace of Kumrahār, Patna, in the year 1914, a terra cotta plaque, measuring  $4\frac{1}{8}$  in. by  $3\frac{6}{8}$  in., was recovered, on which some Kharoshṭhī letters are visible.

The plaque was described by the late Dr. D. B. Spooner, who thought that its central and principal device is a detailed representation of the famous temple at Bodh Gayā, unquestionably the oldest drawing of this temple in existence. The late Mr. Vincent Smith objected to this identification and thought that the plaque may just as well represent one of the great temples at Pāṭaliputra, while Dr. Spooner maintained his explanation. The inscription has been published by Konow.

The identity of the temple depicted on the plaque cannot, I think, be decided. The use of the Kharoshthī alphabet, on the other hand, seems to show that the person who left the plaque in Pāṭaliputra was not an inhabitant of that place, but probably a pilgrim from the north-west. For we have no indication of Kharoshthī having ever been used in Bihar.

The characters are found to the left of the pillar depicted in front of the entrance to the temple, and they are not numerous enough to allow us to judge of the age of the inscription with anything approaching certainty. Ka has the rectilineal and square shape which we know from older inscriptions, and is perhaps most like the ka of the Mount Banj and Pājā inscriptions of the years 102 and 111. But similar forms also occur in later records, even in Jauliā. Sa has the straight-lined continuation of the leg which we also find on the Pājā stone, but the head is bent back as in some or the sa's of the Lion Capital and of the late Loriyān Tangai records. It is impossible to draw any chronological inference from such a state of things.

The first akshara is ka. The leg has been bent forwards, and it is possible that we should read ko. Then follows a badly defaced passage, where I could not detect any traces of letters when I examined the original in Patna in the winter 1925. The photographs before me seem to make it possible to read thuma.. sam. Then comes an almost complete gha and a distinct da. The next akshara looks like da, but the top seems to be slightly turned towards the right and to run into the drawing above it, so that it is possible that we have before us a defective sa. The remaining aksharas are comparatively clear: sa ki ti. Kiti is evidently Sanskrit kriti, which is used in the Divyāvadāna with the meaning 'structure', 'house of relics', but may simply mean 'work'.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> JBORS, i, pp. 1 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Ibidem, pp. 378 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Cf. Pischel, ZDMG, lvi, pp. 157 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Ibidem, ii, pp. 375 ff.

<sup>4</sup> Ibidem, xii, pp. 179 ff.

# 178 INSCRIPTIONS OUTSIDE THE KHAROSHŢHĪ AREA

With the utmost reserve I therefore give the following reading and explanation:

Техт K[othumasa] Saṁghada[sa]sa kiti.

Translation
The work of Samghadasa, the Kauthuma.

#### XCIV. PLATE XXXVI. 2: PĀŢHYĀR INSCRIPTION

Pāṭhyār is situated nine miles south of Kanhiāra, on the bank of the Baner rivulet, at a distance of about one mile from the Dādh Travellers' Bungalow in the Kāngrā District. At this place Professor Vogel discovered an inscription in two lines, cut into the rock. The upper line is written in ancient Brāhmī, the lower gives a somewhat fuller version in Kharoshthī. Both records have been published by Professor Vogel.¹

The characters are of about the same type as in the Asoka inscriptions and may belong to the second or the beginning of the first century B.c. We may note the use of a short stroke for the u-mātrā and the closed head of sa.

The first word, which is missing in the Brāhmī version, was read as rathidarasa by Professor Vogel, who thought it most likely that it is an old form corresponding to  $r\bar{a}th\bar{t}$ , an agricultural caste in Kāngrā. It seems to me, however, that this  $r\bar{a}th\bar{t}$  must be derived from an older  $r\bar{a}shtrika$  and cannot have anything to do with our word. With regard to the reading, it will be seen that the first akshara has a curious sloping bottomstroke. It reminds me so much of the stroke used to mark a long vowel in some Kharoshthī Sanskrit verses from Eastern Turkestan² that I feel tempted to read  $r\bar{a}$ . The third akshara I read as ta and not as da. In  $R\bar{a}thitara$  I see the Vedic  $R\bar{a}th\bar{t}tara$ , which is used as a patronymic by Satyavachas in the Taittirīya Upanishad, I, 9, 1.

The next word *Vayulasa* is the name of a person, representing Skr. *Vāyula*, which is a short name for *Vayudatta* or some similar name.<sup>3</sup> The remaining word *pukariņi* again shows a sloping bottom-stroke in the second akshara.

TEXT Rāthitarasa Vayulasa pukariņi. Translation
The Rāthītara Vayula's pond.

#### XCV. PLATE XXXVI. 3: KANHIĀRA INSCRIPTION

Kanhiāra is situated three miles to the east of Lower Dharmsālā, on the bank of the Mānjī torrent in the Kāngrā District. Sir E. C. Bayley here discovered two inscriptions, one in Brāhmī, the other in Kharoshṭhī, cut on large granite boulders, in a field about half-way between the village and the station of Dharmsālā. As in the case of the Pāṭhyār records the two inscriptions are of the same contents. They have been published by Messrs. Bayley, E. Thomas, Dowson, Cunningham, and Vogel. The Kharoshṭhī record consists of two lines.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Ep. Ind., vii, pp. 116 ff., with plate; cf. Majumdar, List, no. 48.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Stein, Scrindia, pl. xxv.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Mr. Majumdar, J&PASB, xviii, 1922, p. 66, seems to consider Vayula as an un-Indian name.

<sup>4</sup> JASB, xxiii, 1854, pp. 57 f., with plate I.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Prinsep's Essays, i, pp. 159 sf., with plate IX, fig. 2.

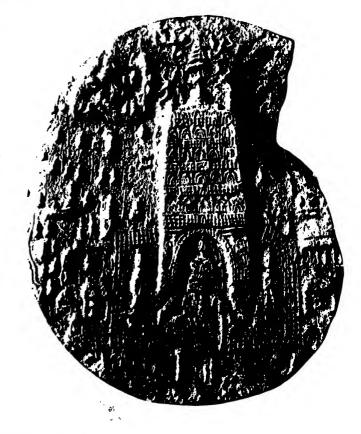
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> JRAS, xx, 1863, p. 254 and plate 1x.

<sup>7</sup> ASI, v, 1875, p. 175 and plate XLII.

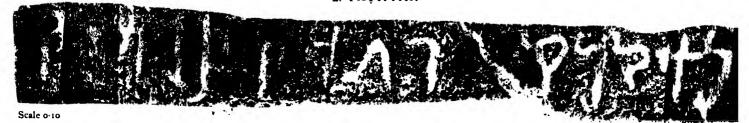
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Ep. Ind., vii, pp. 116 ff., with plate; cf. Majumdar, List, no. 23.

# 1. KUMRAHĀR





2. PĀŢHYĀR



3. KANIIIĀRA



Scale 0-10

KARNĀL



Scale 0.40

The characters are decidedly younger than those of the Pāṭhyār inscription and may be about contemporaneous with the Patika plate. In the first line they are all, with the exception of the first, which has an r-stroke, provided with an angular bottom. The height varies from 5 in. to 1 in. At the beginning of l. 2 we see traces of a svastika.

The first word of the Brāhmī version is Krishņayašasya. The first Kharoshṭhī akshara is kri and the second sha with a dot above, which Professor Vogel takes to be an anusvāra. In that case we should have to assume a direct imitation of the Brāhmī sign, and, besides, krisham is not a likely development of krishna. In the Kurram inscription trishna becomes tasha, where the sh is provided with a curve above, which seems to mark an aspiration. I take the dot to mean the same thing in our inscription and transliterate krish'ayašasa, of Krishnayašas.

TEXT

L. 1 Krish'ayasasa

2 aramo.

Translation Krishnayasas' grove.

#### XCVI. PLATE XXXVI. 4: KARNĀL INSCRIPTION

Karnāl is the head-quarters of the district and tahsīl of Karnāl, situated in 29° 41' N. and 76° E., on the old bank of the Jamna, about seven miles from the present course of the river.

No. I. 89 of the Lahore Museum is a stone, I ft. 2 in. long and  $5\frac{1}{2}$  in. high, which is said to have come from Karnāl. It contains two incomplete lines and one akshara of a third one in Kharoshṭhī. The writing covers a space 10 in. long, and the size of individual letters varies from  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. to  $2\frac{1}{2}$  in.

The characters point to about the same age as the Kanhiāra inscription. We may note the u-mātrā in pu, l. 2, which consists of a short, straight line; the square ka, pa, and la, and the protruding leg of sa.

L. I opens with the word sidhi, Skr. siddhi. Then comes kra with indistinct traces of an i-stroke. The ensuing aksharas are all damaged, and there are several apparent cross-lines, which seem to be due to the roughness of the stone. The second akshara seems to be sa, and krisa may be Skr. Krisa, a well-known old name. Then comes the lower part of a ka, a va with traces of an e or i-stroke, and the lower part of a vertical. It is accordingly possible to read Krisakavina. The last remaining akshara has consisted of a leg, provided with an u-stroke, but cannot be restored.

L. 2 is quite clear as far as it goes: lapotrena ae puka[r]... It is evident that l. 1 originally contained the name of the donor's father, followed by putrena and the beginning of the grandfather's name. L. 2 can be partly restored, pukar... as pukarani or pukarini, and the remaining portion as karavita or svakiye.

L. 3 consists of the akshara a written below the ka of pukar... If we compare the Kanhiāra inscription, we may think of restoring arame.

In such circumstances the reading cannot be certain.

#### TEXT

L. 1 sidhi Kr[i\u00e9a]kav[ina] \u00e9u[\u00cd]... putrena \u00cd...\*]

2 lapotreņa ae puka[riņi karavita\*]

3 a[rame\*]

#### TRANSLATION

Hail. By Kriśakavi, (the son of ...), the grandson of ... la, this pond ....

# LIST OF WORDS OCCURRING IN KHAROSHTHI INSCRIPTIONS

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## CORRIGENDA

PAGE 9, line 11, for one of Bühler's reproductions read Bühler's reproduction

- " 9, " 34, for Hsüan-tsang read Hüan-tsang
- " 17, " 16, add: Or the beginning may be Urasarajathitasa cha
- " 20, " 5, for siyati read siati
- " 22, " 27, for matapitaraņa read matarapitaraņa
- " 27, " 25, delete inverted comma before To
- " 30, " 25, for anenormous read an enormous
- " 47, " 33, for Ayasi read Ayasia
- " 49, " 22, for Rawal read Rāwal
- " 51, " 12, 32, 34 ff., and 42. After the text had been printed I received a new plate prepared from a photograph taken by the Clarendon Press. It shows that the actual reading is *Mumjavamda*, and that the r-stroke of putrasa actually joins the ta in a sharp angle.
- ,, 52, ,, 28, for Mu[iii]javadaput[r]asa read Mu[iii]javaiidaput[r]asa
- " 57, " 6, for L. 3 read I. 2
- " 57, " 7, for 2 read 3
- " 82, " 19, for Cukhsa read Chukhsa
- " 88, " 2, for Iśvaraka read Īśvaraka
- " 99, " 12, for dha 2 read dha 1 1
- " 155, " 19, for instant read term
- " 162, " 4, for Rawal read Rāwal

